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Educational News and Editorial Comment

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THE SIGNIFICANCE OF OUR "HERE AND THERE"

HERE and There among the High Schools has by now been carried far into its third year as a regular feature of the *School Review*. It is, therefore, not out of place to take partial stock of its significance, and this stock-taking may be readily done by a brief review of the innovations reported through the feature in the twenty-five issues of this journal beginning with January, 1936, and ending with May, 1938. The twenty-five issues extend through two and one-half publication years.

During this period a total of more than 180 practices in the nature of innovations in the schools represented have been reported in the feature. The total yields an average of seven to eight items an issue. Because only a few schools have been represented by more than a single innovation, the number of different schools is almost as large as the number of items that have been reported. These schools are distributed to thirty-nine states, the District of Columbia, and the Canal Zone: the geographic spread of the schools reporting the innovations is as wide as the nation.

A classification of the practices described finds them to be as inclusive in scope as are the concerns of secondary-school keeping. However, certain areas are represented more often than others, in all probability because of the greater emphasis, for the time being,

on problems in these areas. Almost a third of all innovations reported have had to do with the curriculum. An approximate fifth have been concerned with the extra-curriculum, which is increasingly recognized as an important ally of the curriculum. At no great distance behind curriculum and extra-curriculum, as measured by the number of items reported, are innovations in guidance and in public relations. Among other areas experiencing the stir of innovation with some frequency are reports to parents, provisions for individual differences, school organization, housing and other facilities, and a variety of aspects of school administration.

To appreciate something of the significance of the innovations, one need hardly go farther than to note the expressions used to characterize them. The following illustrative designations are drawn from the area of the curriculum: "A course in consumer education," "A pupil project investigating garbage disposal," "A new course in physical science," "Pupil participation in school control joins the curriculum," "Giving reality to oral themes," "An orientation course for high-school Freshmen," "Newspapers enrich school study," "A realistic approach in training for citizenship," "A core curriculum for retarded pupils," "A fusion course in English and social science," "An experimental course in the appreciation of movies and radio," "An experiment in free reading," "A course in mental hygiene in the senior high school," and "Creative writing in a junior high school."

It is not difficult to define current curriculum trends from captions like these. In them one may see close relation to life and living, adaptation to abilities, recognition of pupil interests, and disruption of traditional subject boundaries. One need not hold a brief for any single innovation in just the form described in these reports and still be justified in the conviction that, as a whole, the innovations represent movement along desirable lines—progress in adapting the secondary-school curriculum to new needs in new times.

Requests have been received for permission to draw upon these descriptions of innovations for various interesting purposes. From a graduate school of education has come a request to be allowed to pose the innovations as problems for discussion in examinations. Authors of books in preparation have asked for blanket permission to quote descriptions as concrete instances of modern educational

practices. However much we may be gratified by the appropriateness of the reports for such special uses, it is not, of course, for such purposes that the novel practices are being reported. The feature is published in the belief that it serves as a source of dynamic suggestion, and we are assured that hundreds of school heads and teachers scan "Here and There" from month to month on the lookout for practices that may be adopted or adapted in their own schools and classes. In order that this stream of dynamic suggestion may be kept flowing, readers are invited to submit reports of innovations in schools in which they are at work.

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

THE items for this feature in the current issue were reported from four high schools in as many states. They are concerned with a course in embryology, vocabulary drill, a pageant and an Arbor Day program, and a manual of guidance for teachers.

A course in embryology A course in elementary embryology is offered in the Blackfoot (Idaho) High School, of which William C. Park is principal. The course has been taught for two years by S. Edmund Stoddard, instructor of science in the school, who has provided the information on which this description is based. The only pupils permitted to enrol have been Seniors who had previously studied biology. The outline of the course lists seven main divisions: (1) embryology, (2) machinery of development, (3) working of the gene, (4) formation of tissues, (5) experimental embryology, (6) history of the gene, and (7) changing of organisms.

As aid to the pupils in their studies of the developmental processes, laboratory work on the embryology of the chick was undertaken. This work called for the building of an incubator. A box of the required dimensions was constructed and wired for electric-light bulbs to be used as the source of heat. A wafer-type thermostat was installed for control of temperature. After several months of work a small incubator had been constructed with a glass window in the lid. A piece of shell was removed from a hen egg and the opening covered with sterilized white cellophane. This egg was then placed

beneath the glass window, and for days the developing embryo could be observed and studied. Mr. Stoddard reports that in his teaching experience few projects have created more enthusiasm among pupils than the study of the developing embryo of the chick.

The pupils were instructed in the technique of making their own whole mounts. The fixative employed was Kleinenberg's, and the stain, alum cochineal. At first the embryos were cleared in xylene and run through 100 per cent alcohol before mounting. As the laboratory work progressed, dioxane was substituted for xylene, and the slides were mounted from 95 per cent alcohol. This procedure saved time and expense, and the embryos did not become brittle. This year the school has purchased a sliding microtome with which, in the future presentation of the course, sections of embryos can be made for study. A microprojector and a fine wide-field binocular microscope have also been secured. The new apparatus should greatly extend the value of the course. Also a photomicrographic outfit has been obtained, and an interesting project involving the use of this equipment is planned for the closing portion of the course. After the pupils have studied the development of the chick from their own prepared slides, photomicrographs of the embryos will be taken. Definite stages in the development of the chick will be assigned to different groups of pupils, and each group will take pictures and write explanations of the plates. All plates will be assembled by the pupils into a booklet and will be studied as a review assignment for the entire class. By this procedure pupils will learn not only embryology but photography as well.

Mr. Stoddard writes at some length on the values of such a course. He emphasizes first that "embryology is the only science which can integrate into the responses of young men and women the idea of the wonderful mechanism of development and growth." He mentions next the values in explanations of many biological phenomena of which pupils hear and which they see. "What is the cause of hermaphroditism? Is there any scientific theory or explanation to account for the birth of Siamese twins and types of monsters?" To the criticism by some persons that such subjects should not be discussed by pupils, Mr. Stoddard would reply that the majority of Seniors are eighteen years of age and that many pupils of this matu-

rity have seen living illustrations of such abnormalities. Still another value of instruction in embryology is the development of the biological concept of evolution.

In the opinion of Mr. Stoddard, the greatest value that can be claimed is the development in the pupils of a wholesome and an objective attitude toward sex. During class discussions they talk of fertilization, implantation, and development of the ovum to form the embryo and of how the embryo grows to form the fetus. These matters are discussed scientifically and objectively, not emotionally. Through such discussions pupils form habits of open-mindedness and normal reactions to problems of sex.

Mr. Stoddard finds practically all pupils interested and curious about the processes of development. The value of a subject to a pupil may be judged by the extent of continued interest after the close of the course. Mr. Stoddard is able to cite a number of instances of rather striking persistence of interest, such as the purchase of the textbook of the course (in a school which operates a rental system) and the building by one boy, after the close of the course, of a small incubator for pursuit of his individual inquiries.

Vocabulary drill for Juniors and Seniors Principal A. L. Baumgartner, of the Harvey High School at Painesville, Ohio, reports the giving in his school of a course in "vocabulary drill." The course is an elective for Juniors and Seniors and extends through one semester. The teacher of the course is Lester Dickey, who includes in it the study of words, derivations, meanings, history of words, the definite building of vocabulary, proper usage, correct pronunciation, and "a greatly needed type of drill" in spelling. Principal Baumgartner reports that the course has proved "interesting and practical."

A Nebraska pageant and an Arbor Day program From the schools of Fairbury, Nebraska, of which W. E. Scott is the superintendent, has come the description of a historical pageant, "My Nebraska," which was written and directed by Robert L. Pullen, instructor of speech in the Fairbury High School. The description was supplied by an instructor in

the department of English, Frank O. McIntyre. The pageant was presented as a climax to a local "Education Week," first as a matinee to rural pupils and in the evening to another audience. The cast included more than 150 of the high-school pupils. The pageant consisted of numerous episodes depicting the "Nebraska of the Indians," "Nebraska under Four Flags," "Land of Indian Conflict," "Land of the Open Trail," Nebraska's experience with slavery in the period before the Civil War, and an episode introducing the official bird, flower, seal, and flag of the state. Musical effects were supplied by pupils.

From the Fairbury High School has come also brief reference to an Arbor Day program, when trees were planted on the campus and dedicated to the memory of teachers and pupils who had died during the preceding decade. The project was arranged by the student council.

A manual of guidance for the use of teachers Principal R. G. Hein, of the Junior-Senior High School, South Milwaukee, Wisconsin, has submitted a guidance manual which he gives to all his teachers to aid them in advising pupils concerning courses. "The need for the book arose," says Mr. Hein, "from the fact that teachers were attempting to do guidance when they knew little about the curriculum." The Preface indicates that the manual is not designed for perusal by pupils, and guidance in relation to its content is to be transmitted by interview. Sections of the manual are devoted to "The Personal Interview," "Objectives of the Curriculum," "College Entrance," and the required and elective subjects in each grade of the school.

JUDICIAL VINDICATION OF A REGIONAL ASSOCIATION

IN JUNE of this year the United States District Court for the Eastern District of Illinois denied a motion for temporary injunction and dissolved a temporary restraining order against the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The suit to enjoin had been brought for the state of North Dakota by Governor William Langer. The incident is so unique in the history of voluntary standardizing associations and the decision of this lower court so significant in relation to establishing their authority that we deem

it desirable to reconstruct in abstract form the facts in the case from the court's decision. The complete statement by Judge Walter C. Lindley is too long to be reproduced in full.

Prior to 1919 the state institutions of higher education of North Dakota were under the direction of a Board of Regents. In that year a Board of Administration was created by the legislature, and in that board was lodged responsibility, not only for educational institutions, but for eleemosynary and penal institutions as well. The board directs some twenty institutions. The superintendent of public instruction and the commissioner of agriculture and labor are ex officio members and constitute two of the full membership of five. Under the law all the members may be of the same political party.

The Committee of Inquiry of the North Central Association, at the association's direction, made an investigation of the North Dakota Agricultural College (at Fargo) and its administration. The following facts were contained in its report. On July 29, 1937, the Board of Administration met in Bismarck. It voted to accept the resignation of J. H. Shepperd, president of the college, effective at once, and to dismiss seven named members of the staff, most of whom had been connected with the institution for many years. No charges appeared of record against any person dismissed. John C. West, president of the University of North Dakota (at Grand Forks), was appointed acting president of the Agricultural College. On July 31 the seven dismissed members received at Fargo registered letters notifying them of their dismissals but giving no reasons. In lieu of the customary notice, each member was given an extra month's salary. On August 2 Dr. Shepperd telephoned the secretary of the board and was promised a hearing for the dismissed staff members. Later in the day the secretary, it is claimed, wired Dr. Shepperd that the board would hear him on August 3 at eleven o'clock. The Committee of Inquiry in its report said that it was informed that this telegram was never received by Dr. Shepperd, that there was no record of its being received by the Western Union Telegraph Company in Fargo, and that none of the dismissed staff members received notice of an opportunity to appear before the board. Within the period of a week the board again convened in Bismarck and wired Dr. Shepperd that it had set a time the next day to hear such statements as there might be a desire to make, but the telegrams

were received in Fargo too late for any of the interested parties to reach Bismarck by train in time for the hearing. It was the vacation period, and only two of the persons concerned were in Fargo when the telegrams arrived. None had been notified of charges against him.

In reply to the investigating committee's inquiry as to the cause for dismissal, the board stated that no reason had been given because of the possibility of court action by the persons discharged. Reasons given to the committee against one individual or another included activities in adjusting hail insurance (which the inquiry showed had been carried on by the person dismissed only during his annual vacation); activities in partisan politics; incompetence due to a nervous breakdown and the use of improper language in a dormitory (with no conclusive evidence of incompetence); deafness (where no physical handicaps or weaknesses existed); the cashing of travel script books (where the amount involved had been voluntarily repaid before it was known that the person so charged owed the money); and failure to act in the best interest of the farmers of the state. The committee reported that the person concerned in the last charge was efficient and independent but perhaps not always "politic."

The Committee of Inquiry reported that it had investigated the effect on the teaching staff of the dismissal of the seven staff members; that, after careful consideration, it had concluded that the morale of the staff had been distinctly lowered; that a spirit of unrest and uncertainty existed detrimental to the program of the Agricultural College; and that confirmation of this conclusion lay in the resignations of prominent staff members and the expressed desire of others to make new connections. It recommended that the college be removed from the list of accredited colleges of the North Central Association because (1) the evidence indicated undue interference by the Board of Administration in the internal administration of the college; (2) the morale of the faculty had declined to the point where the quality of instruction was seriously jeopardized; and (3) there was no convincing assurance that the legal structure and organization for the administration of the North Dakota Agricultural College and other institutions of higher education in the state would pro-

vide to the individual institutions a sufficient degree of autonomy to guarantee a satisfactory level of performance.

In reviewing the nature of the North Central Association and its procedure in operation, Judge Lindley states that the organization is "purely voluntary in character." Colleges and universities become members by making application and securing approval by the officers of the association and continue their memberships by payment of annual membership fees. An institution may voluntarily withdraw, or the association may determine that the standards of the institution are not such that it should be retained as a member. The association insists that all member institutions meet certain requirements, among them standards which would condemn an arbitrary attitude on the part of an administration toward freedom of teaching, and it further insists that any policy which makes tenure precarious for competent instructors is undesirable.

Under its constitution the North Central Association acts largely through an Executive Committee. Its Commission on Institutions of Higher Education has to do with the member colleges and universities. This commission has a subcommittee termed the Board of Review, the duty of which is to appoint inspectors, conduct inspections, receive reports, and make recommendations as to members and other matters. This board reports to the commission, the commission reports to the Executive Committee, and the final authority of the association is its annual meeting. Appeals lie from decisions of the commission to the Executive Committee and from this committee to the annual meeting.

The action of the Board of Administration in North Dakota in dismissing the members of the staff came to the attention of the secretary of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education, Dr. George A. Works, of the University of Chicago, through an article published in *School and Society*, and Dr. Works wrote to Dr. West, then acting president of the Agricultural College, informing him of the report, stating that the Board of Review at its next meeting would certainly expect some sort of report of the situation, and asking whether Dr. West could supply information on the subject or whether Dr. Works should apply to some other source. Somewhat later one of the dismissed officers also wrote to the secretary, com-

plaining that he and six others had been discharged and indicating his opinion that certain practices at the University of North Dakota should be investigated. Further facts in the case concern a meeting of the Board of Review, at which Dr. West was present; the appointment of a special Committee of Inquiry, a visit of this committee to Fargo, and the making of the report by the committee, the findings of which have already been summarized. The report was next considered at a meeting of the Board of Review, at which President West was again present, as well as a member of the Board of Administration and a representative of the alumni of the Agricultural College. At this meeting it was recommended to the commission that the Agricultural College be removed from the accredited list and that the board complete the action suggested. The recommendations were approved unanimously by the commission. Subsequently President West wrote Dr. Works, asking that an advisory committee be appointed to recheck the conditions at the Agricultural College and that his letter be considered a petition for reinstatement. Dr. Works replied that he would be glad to put the request before the Board of Review but that the application for reinstatement could not be made at that time. He stated that the Executive Committee, under the constitution, had authority to hear and to determine appeals from the findings of the commission on the approval of schools. Neither the college nor any other party saw fit to appeal or to avail themselves of the opportunity to have a review of the findings by the Executive Committee.

The plaintiff insisted in the affidavit that the action of the North Central Association in not renewing the membership of the Agricultural College was arbitrary, unfair, and in bad faith; that it resulted from a conspiracy among the defendants to disgrace the educational system of North Dakota, to interfere with the state in the direction of maintenance of its educational institutions; that no fair hearing was had upon the question of whether the college should be retained as a member; and that irreparable injury would be suffered by the institutions of the state unless further alleged threatened action in pursuance of the alleged plan and scheme of the association were restrained.

In dissolving the injunction, the court appears to have relied

chiefly on two considerations. One of these is the fact that the North Central Association is a voluntary organization. The other is that the plaintiff had not exhausted the possibilities of appeal within the organization.

Attorneys for Governor Langer of North Dakota have appealed the case to the federal Appellate Court in Chicago, and the appeal is to be heard in October. We plan to inform our readers of the outcome of the appeal. Standardization through voluntary regional associations is so general that the outcome of this litigation will have pervasive significance for American secondary and higher education.

THEN AND NOW ON THE PLACE OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

IN THE May number of the *School Review*, under the heading "A Prophecy Moves toward Fulfilment," we quoted a statement made in his report for 1902 on the schools of New York City by Superintendent Maxwell, predicting that the high schools of that city would soon be doing "all of the work now required in the Freshman and Sophomore years of our great universities." The statement had been found by A. P. Gossard, superintendent of schools at Bloomington, Illinois, in connection with inquiries involving examination of reports of city school superintendents. Mr. Gossard now calls attention to another statement of a rather similar nature in the annual report for 1897 of Edwin P. Seaver, superintendent of schools in Boston. We quote two paragraphs from the statement. An intervening paragraph, not quoted, comments on proposals which had been made in an earlier period and which, if put into effect, would have brought higher education into Boston's school system.

Indeed, it would be difficult to state any good reason why most of the work done in the first two years of the ordinary college course should not be as well done in the public high school. When one compares the moderate increase of public expenditure that might be required to do this with the great advantages that would be enjoyed from having such advanced public instruction provided near every man's home, he can hardly doubt that an intelligent people with an active regard for its best educational interests will favor the change. . . .

This large development of the public high school seems sure to come, not this year, or next year, or for a decade or two, perhaps; but in the not distant future. In a broad view of the educational movements now in progress one can hardly fail to see that the public high school is destined to enlarge its functions

more and more until it shall become the regular feeder, not of colleges, but of universities and professional schools. It will be well, therefore, if we keep this larger destiny of the public high school in mind while considering measures affecting its present stability and growth.

That statement was made more than forty years ago. Since that time not only has the idea of the junior college come into prominence, but also the institution has moved rapidly toward being a characteristic feature of local school systems. The whole movement has gained so much momentum that the junior college has worked its way into pronouncements of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association. Following are excerpts from *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*, recently prepared for the commission by Professor George D. Strayer.

An increasing percentage of the group eighteen and nineteen years of age is enrolled in junior colleges or in the first two years of the four-year college. The time is approaching when the common school program in the United States will provide opportunities beginning with the nursery school or kindergarten and continuing through the junior college. . . .

The typical public-school system in the United States provides eight years in the elementary school and four years in the high school. Beyond these units are commonly found the four-year college and the professional and graduate schools of the university offering advanced work for three or four additional years. This pattern is rapidly being modified. The common school program now extends from the nursery school and kindergarten through the junior college. Instead of the traditional organization many communities are now organizing their school system in three major units. The first includes the nursery school and kindergarten and the first six years of the common school program; the second a four-year program of continued general education; and the third a four-year unit, an important function of which is the differentiation of courses in line with the vocational outlook of the more mature boys and girls enrolled in it. During the period of transition in which we now find ourselves a great variety of organization still exists. In some communities we have the kindergarten and the first two grades organized as a primary school; in others the nursery school and kindergarten and the first six years of the common school are organized as the elementary school. Beyond this period the variations consist of three types of organization: (1) a three-year junior high school, three-year senior high school, and two-year junior college; or, (2) a six-year high school and a two-year junior college; or, (3) the organization suggested above which consists of an elementary school carrying children to approximately twelve or thirteen years of age, followed by two units of four years

each which complete the common school program at approximately twenty years of age.

Administrative considerations make it desirable to organize children in three major units rather than four. For the younger children, travel distance is an important factor. Even with the diminished enrolment in elementary schools we shall still need to provide more school buildings to house little children, and the units so provided will be smaller than those in which we house older children. Beyond twelve years of age the problem of travel distance is not so important. We need, however, to provide school units covering a sufficiently long period to make possible the development of the corporate life of the school. We must recognize as well that this second unit in the school system is almost wholly concerned with the provision of general education. In rural areas the consolidation of the whole common school system in a single plant has often provided a desirable as well as an economical unit of organization. . . .

The first two years of college work as commonly offered in American institutions of higher education are more certainly related to the secondary school than to the higher education offered in the last two years of college. The structure of secondary education needs to be reconsidered in terms of the junior-college years.

The quotations from these two sources suggest that over the span of forty years the junior college has progressed from the proposal of occasional individuals to a recommendation of an important commission of the nation's largest organization of educators. It appears also that during the same interval the idea of the junior college has shifted from its being merely an upward extension of the public-school system to the highest years in a new pattern of school organization composed of three major units, the lowest unit to include the nursery school and kindergarten and six elementary grades and each of the two remaining units to include four grades.

THE NATION'S SCHOOL-BUILDING CONSTRUCTION AND NEEDS

AT THE request of school-building experts in all sections of the country, the United States Office of Education undertook last year a study of the types of schools constructed during the preceding three years. The study as made included also an inquiry into school-building needs. Data for the investigation were obtained direct from superintendents of schools in cities with populations of ten thousand and over and from state superintendents of public instruction. Replies were received from more than two-thirds of the cities approached (representing almost seven-tenths of the total population

in cities of this size) and from nearly half the state departments of education. The evidence from the inquiry is reported in a publication (Office of Education Bulletin No. 35, 1937) credited to Alice Barrows, senior specialist in school-building problems, as author, which is purchasable of the Superintendent of Documents in Washington for ten cents.

Of the 612 cities from which replies were received, 246, or 40.2 per cent, had constructed school buildings with aid from the Public Works Administration. In the 246 cities, a total of 722 new buildings and additions had been or were being constructed. The distribution by types of buildings reported is as follows: elementary schools, 399 (or over half of all); junior high schools, 82; senior high schools, 120; junior-senior high schools, 36; combined elementary and junior high schools, 19; vocational and trade schools, 18; junior colleges, 17; and "miscellaneous," 31. The 722 new buildings and additions contain 11,034 rooms, 293 auditoriums, 284 gymnasiums, 60 auditorium-gymnasiums, and 277 libraries. The total estimated cost was \$162,547,743. Of this amount, \$60,739,513 was in P.W.A. grants and \$23,884,867 in P.W.A. loans—a total of \$84,624,380 from P.W.A. sources.

Responses to requests for estimates of the amount of money needed to provide "adequate school-building accommodations for all the pupils" in the communities were received from 383 cities, a number including 39 per cent of all cities with populations of 10,000 and over. The total estimated cost of needed school-building construction as of January, 1937, in these cities, was almost a half-billion dollars.

The concluding chapter of the bulletin contains the following statements to show how a "school-building program can be the lever by means of which a school system may be reorganized along modern progressive lines."

1. Thousands of school children are still housed in one-room schools. There are 132,000 one-room schools in the United States. A school-building program makes possible the elimination of these small schools and the reorganization of many small schools into larger administrative units.

2. If the children of today in elementary and high schools are to be equipped to meet the conditions of modern life and deal with them intelligently, it is necessary for the school to provide the facilities needed for a modern curricu-

lum, i.e., science laboratories, libraries, art rooms, music rooms, commercial rooms, gymnasiums, auditoriums, etc. The average school building of thirty years ago did not have these facilities. Yet the present study revealed that over 39 per cent of the school buildings in 506 cities of 10,000 population and over are more than thirty years old.

3. The school must now provide not only for children in elementary and high schools but also for the thousands of boys and girls of eighteen to twenty-one years of age who are neither in colleges or universities nor at work. Technological changes in industry are going to increase rather than decrease the numbers in this group who must be taken care of by the schools. The curriculum will have to be changed to meet the needs of these young people. This means that school buildings will have to be altered and equipped to meet these needs.

4. The schools must also provide opportunities for adults for re-education in new lines of work made necessary by industrial changes and for recreation during leisure time. The modern well-planned high school is adapted for use by adults, but more buildings of this type are needed.

5. School plant surveys are essential for adequate school plant programs. The lack of data available as to school-building requirements for places under 10,000 population indicate that state departments of education are justified in their conviction of the need of school-building divisions with adequate staffs and funds for making comprehensive and continuing surveys of school-building needs. Modern school buildings are needed. But they should be constructed only where needed. Such need cannot be determined except on the basis of comprehensive long-range surveys which take into consideration population trends, economic and social trends, and the educational program needed for the children, youth, and adults of a given community.

THE "SCHOOL REVIEW" AS SOURCE MATERIAL

AUBREY A. DOUGLASS, until lately professor of education in the Claremont Colleges but now with California's State Department of Education as chief of the Division of Secondary Education, has had published under the appropriate title, *Modern Secondary Education*, a revision of his earlier widely used book, *Secondary Education*. The new edition is, in the opinion of this editor, the best general treatise on secondary education now in print. Among its elements of superiority are its comprehensiveness and its illuminating use of a vast body of factual material descriptive of the secondary school, past, present, and emerging. The evidence presented has been drawn from a great diversity of sources, such as the author's observations, reports of investigations, books, and periodicals. Footnote references name more than fifty different periodicals, most of

them, to be sure, educational periodicals. A point of special interest to our readers will be that as many as seventy-eight references are made to issues of the *School Review*. The periodical with the next largest frequency of mention is referred to twenty times—approximately a fourth as often as is this journal. Moreover, the seventy-eight references are scattered through fifteen of the seventeen chapters of *Modern Secondary Education*, a fact which hints at the broad range of useful material in the *School Review*.

WHO'S WHO FOR OCTOBER

The authors of articles in the current issue HENRY HARAP, associate director of Surveys and Field Studies and professor of education at the George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee. ARNOLD M. CHRISTENSEN, acting head of the Department of Education at State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minnesota. ARTHUR E. TRAXLER, research associate at the Educational Records Bureau, New York City. FREDERICK L. POND, principal of the Meadville High School, Meadville, Pennsylvania. FRED B. DIXON, principal of the David H. Hickman High School, Columbia, Missouri. GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER, dean of the School of Education at Stanford University. AUBREY E. HAAN, graduate student at Stanford University.

The writers of reviews in the current issue RUSSELL T. GREGG, assistant professor of education at Syracuse University. F. DEAN MCCLUSKY, director of the Scarborough School, Scarborough-on-Hudson, New York. PAUL W. TERRY, professor of psychology at the University of Alabama. R. M. TRYON, professor of the teaching of the social sciences at the University of Chicago. VINCENT A. DAVIS, associate professor of English at Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas. FRANCIS F. POWERS, associate professor of education at the University of Washington. A. W. HURD, professor of education at Hamline University, St. Paul, Minnesota.

SEVENTY-ONE COURSES IN CONSUMPTION

HENRY HARAP
George Peabody College for Teachers



INTRODUCTION

ABOUT three years ago I made a survey of courses in consumption which included twenty-eight outlines, all that were available at the time.¹ Since the number of available courses in this field has increased rapidly, it seemed desirable to expand the study to include the seventy-one courses which I have been able to secure. While this number does not include all that are being taught, it represents the yield of a rather large correspondence. As a result of the present effort, there should begin to emerge a definite outline of the scope of consumer education and a substantial basis for the classification of the topics in this field. The table of topics should facilitate self-examination of instructional programs and the list of instructors should stimulate a certain amount of correspondence among those interested in the economics of consumption. The table of topics is virtually an index to sources, since each numeral after an entry refers to a course outline which may be identified by a key number. The full address of each instructor who contributed an outline is given at the end of this study.

NATURE AND TREATMENT OF DATA

The seventy-one course outlines used in the survey consist of thirty-five secondary-school courses, twenty-six college courses, and ten courses for adults. The courses came from several subject departments. The social studies are most frequently represented, followed by the departments of home economics and business. At the secondary level the business department offers consumer courses most often, although it is closely pressed by home economics and

¹ Henry Harap, "Survey of Twenty-eight Courses in Consumption," *School Review*, XLIII (September, 1935), 497-507.

social studies. On the college level the economics department seems to have a dominant position in the field, although the departments of business and home economics are also represented. In the field of adult education the economist seems to have a monopoly. On the basis of supplementary material received after the tabulation was completed, I am able to report three courses representing the department of science. Pioneering instructors in chemistry have apparently recognized the possibility of applying scientific knowledge to household and buying problems. Only two of the courses reported are offered in the industrial or vocational departments. At least two of the respondents state that they correlate their courses with the work in other departments. Two courses were reported, both from California, in which several instructors co-operate in teaching consumer problems. At the John Muir Technical High School in Pasadena a course in "Home Science" is taught jointly by the chairmen of the departments of home economics, industrial arts, business education, and science. At the University High School in Oakland the joint participation of instructors is limited, but it is evident that "Consumer Education" contains fragments of home economics, English, and social studies.

The title of a new course should convey something of its dominant purpose. The titles of the seventy-one courses are numerous and varied, and they seem to emphasize broad training, economics, buying, and the home. The emphasis on consumption as a phase of the field of economics appears in such titles as "Economics of Consumption," which is most frequently found at the college level. At the secondary level it is more often given some such title as "Consumer Economics." One gets the impression that the course at the college level consists of an expansion of what formerly was a chapter or a topic in the conventional course in economics. The use of some such title as "Problems of the Consumer" is frequent and indicates that the course has not yet developed a definite form and that therefore the selection of units is informal. The use of the broad term "Consumer Education," which is the course title of greatest frequency, suggests a comprehensive treatment including buying, problems of finance, and consumer organization. In the field of home economics the emphasis is on buying, the home, and the family. There is an

indication of a tendency to probe more deeply into the hitherto purely manipulative aspects of the courses in home economics. The most used course titles, in order of frequency, are: "Consumer Education," "Economics of Consumption" or "Consumer Economics," "Problems of the Consumer," "Consumer Buying," and "Economics of the Home [or Family]."

The organization of the field of consumer education is difficult. A few of the phases around which the seventy-one courses most often group themselves are: consumers' goods, consumers' services, general buying problems, consumers' financial problems, the consumer and government, consumer organization, the consumer and public welfare, and principles of consumption. In Table 1 are shown, under these eight categories, the topics treated in the seventy-one courses included in this survey. The defense for these categories is that they represent fairly distinctive groups of consumers' interests and activities. The organization of topics is not intended to be an instructional outline. It is, however, a convenient basis for cataloguing informational materials in vertical files and pamphlet boxes.

AN OVERVIEW OF THE FIELD OF CONSUMPTION

A comparison of the general treatment of the eight major fields of consumption by educational levels shows that the secondary schools tend to emphasize consumers' goods. The college courses neglect consumers' goods but lay stress on problems of public welfare, consumer organization, and principles of consumption. The adult courses include an abundant treatment of consumers' goods, a slightly inadequate treatment of finance, and a serious neglect of consumers' services.

The study of consumers' goods is least often found in the college courses. Among these courses the most frequent treatment is found in home-economics and not in economics departments. From the point of view of immediate practical value, the secondary and the adult courses are superior to the college offerings in the area of consumption. Of the several classes of consumers' goods, those most frequently studied are *clothing, food, drugs and cosmetics*. *Electrical appliances and fuels* are also studied often, but in a group of the second order.

TABLE 1
TOPICS FOUND IN SEVENTY-ONE COURSES IN CONSUMPTION

TOPIC	FRE- QUENCY IN ALL COURSES	COURSES IN WHICH TOPIC OCCURS*		
		Secondary-School Courses	College Courses	Courses for Adults and Clubs
I. Consumers' goods...	166	(90)	(31)	(45)
1. Automobiles....	12	4, 10, 16, 17, 19, 27, 30	36, 50	65, 66, 70
2. Building materials.....	7	12, 19, 31	63, 67, 68, 71
3. Canned goods....	3	10	56	68
4. Children's commodities.....	3	10	56	68
5. Cleaning and polishing.....	7	6, 19, 31	38	68, 70, 71
6. Clothing.....	35	3, 4, 6, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 21, 27, 28, 30, 31, 34, 35	36, 37, 43, 48, 50, 51, 54, 56	63, 64, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71
7. Drugs and cosmetics.....	22	3, 7, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 28, 30, 31	37, 38, 50, 56	65, 66, 68, 70, 71
8. Electrical appliances.....	16	6, 10, 12, 15, 16, 17, 30, 34	37, 38, 50	63, 67, 68, 70, 71
9. Food.....	32	3, 4, 6, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 21, 23, 27, 28, 30, 31, 34	36, 37, 43, 50, 51, 54, 55, 56	62, 64, 66, 68 70, 71,
10. Fuels for cooking and heating.....	8	10, 11, 19, 23, 31, 34	68, 71
11. Furniture.....	6	12, 19, 27	50, 52	71
12. Household linens.....	7	6, 8, 12	63, 67, 68, 71
13. Kitchen equipment.....	2	19	50
14. Leather goods....	6	12, 15, 19, 21	70, 71
II. Consumers' services.	59	(36)	(23)
15. Communication	1	14
16. Education	3	3, 34	56
17. General services.....	5	15, 35	51, 54, 56
18. Governmental services	4	11, 14, 23	50
19. Health service...	7	4, 7, 14	36, 50, 51, 56

* The numerals in these columns, except those in parentheses, refer to key numbers of the courses listed at the end of this article. The numbers in parentheses show the frequencies of the eight main headings in the table.

TABLE 1—Continued

TOPIC	FREQUENCY IN ALL COURSES	COURSES IN WHICH TOPIC OCCURS		
		Secondary-School Courses	College Courses	Courses for Adults and Clubs
II. Consumer's services <i>(continued)</i> :				
20. Insurance.....	26	2, 4, 6, 7, 14, 15, 16, 17, 21, 22, 25, 27, 29, 31, 32, 34, 35	36, 40, 42, 45, 46, 49, 52, 54, 59
21. Light and power.	4	2, 10, 23	54
22. Recreation.....	6	13, 14, 27	36, 51, 56
23. Transportation..	3	14, 19	56
III. General buying problems.....	201	(94)	(85)	(22)
24. Advertising.....	36	1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 13, 14, 17, 18, 21, 22, 26, 27, 28, 29, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35	37, 38, 41, 43, 48, 54, 56, 58, 59, 60	62, 63, 65, 66, 67, 70
25. Brand names, labels, and specifications.....	14	9, 12, 14, 17, 22, 31	48, 50, 56, 58, 59	63, 66, 71
26. Buying in general	31	2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15, 17, 21, 24, 25, 26, 27, 29, 32, 33	37, 38, 39, 40, 42, 45, 46, 47, 48, 50, 54, 55, 56
27. Family as consumer.....	9	4, 20, 24	42, 46, 49, 51, 54, 59
28. Fashions.....	3	26	43, 50
29. Frauds and swindles.....	13	4, 13, 15, 16, 17, 21, 31, 32, 33, 35	36, 50, 54
30. Misrepresentation and adulteration	12	14, 16, 29, 31, 32	36, 41, 50, 54, 56, 59	66
31. Price.....	25	2, 9, 14, 18, 20, 23, 30, 33	36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 42, 45, 46, 47, 48, 50, 54, 57, 59, 61	66, 70
32. Retail selling methods.....	22	3, 9, 15, 16, 17, 18, 21, 24, 31	36, 38, 44, 45, 48, 50, 56, 58, 59, 60	62, 63, 70
33. Wastes in consumption.....	17	3, 4, 13, 14, 16, 17, 21, 31, 32, 33, 35	36, 37, 43, 50, 54, 59

TABLE 1—Continued

TOPIC	FREQUENCY IN ALL COURSES	COURSES IN WHICH TOPIC OCCURS		
		Secondary-School Courses	College Courses	Courses for Adults and Clubs
III. General buying problems (<i>continued</i>):				
34. Standards and grades.....	14	14, 17, 22	38, 47, 55, 56, 59, 60	63, 66, 67, 69, 70
35. Weights and measures.....	5	50, 55, 59	66, 69
IV. Consumers' financial problems.....	141	(77)	(55)	(9)
36. Banking and saving.....	29	2, 3, 7, 15, 16, 17, 19, 21, 22, 25, 26, 27, 29, 30, 31, 34, 35	36, 40, 42, 45, 51, 52, 54, 56, 59, 61	65, 70
37. Borrowing and lending.....	19	4, 9, 15, 16, 17, 19, 21, 25, 34, 35	36, 38, 39, 40, 52, 54, 59	64, 70
38. Building and loan associations.....	6	4, 27, 34	36, 54	65
39. Buying and renting a home.....	20	3, 4, 7, 10, 13, 14, 16, 17, 19, 21, 22, 25, 27, 34	40, 42, 50, 52, 54	65
40. Household accounting, budgeting.....	29	3, 4, 7, 14, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 25, 26, 27, 29, 32, 35	36, 40, 43, 45, 46, 47, 49, 50, 51, 52, 54, 56	65
41. Instalment buying.....	19	1, 3, 15, 19, 21, 27, 29, 30, 33, 34	36, 38, 45, 48, 52, 54, 59	64, 65
42. Investing.....	10	15, 32, 34, 35	36, 40, 42, 52, 54, 59
43. Taxes.....	9	16, 17, 26	36, 43, 44, 45, 50, 54
V. The consumer and government.....	69	(31)	(28)	(10)
44. Consumer and New Deal.....	7	2, 16, 19	37, 44, 50, 61
45. Consumer and tariff.....	4	16, 17	44	66
46. Food and drug legislation.....	11	5, 15, 18, 19, 23, 31	50, 55	63, 67, 70

TABLE 1—Continued

TOPIC	FREQUENCY IN ALL COURSES	COURSES IN WHICH TOPIC OCCURS		
		Secondary-School Courses	College Courses	Courses for Adults and Clubs
V. The consumer and government (<i>continued</i>):				
47. Government aid to consumer	37	1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 20, 21, 26, 30, 32, 33	36, 37, 38, 39, 41, 44, 45, 47, 49, 50, 53, 54, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60	63, 66, 69, 70
48. Legal aspects of consumption	10	15, 21, 22, 35	36, 37, 38, 54	63, 65
VI. Consumer organization	108	(47)	(50)	(11)
49. Consumer education	20	1, 3, 13, 14, 18, 20, 24, 35	36, 37, 40, 41, 43, 45, 47, 50, 53, 56, 58	70
50. Consumer organizations	28	1, 2, 3, 4, 13, 15, 20, 21, 24, 26, 31, 34	36, 37, 38, 39, 41, 47, 48, 50, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60	63, 66, 70
51. Co-operative movement	17	2, 3, 4, 18, 19	36, 37, 38, 39, 45, 49, 50, 54, 57, 58, 60	66
52. Private agencies for consumer aid	17	1, 13, 15, 18, 20, 21, 24, 26, 34	36, 38, 47, 48, 59, 60	63, 70
53. Sources of information	18	4, 7, 9, 15, 16, 18, 21, 28	36, 38, 41, 48, 50, 54, 59	63, 66, 67
54. Standards movement	8	5, 7, 18, 19, 26	37, 59	63
VII. The consumer and public welfare	130	(50)	(71)	(9)
55. Business cycles and crises	7	16, 17	36, 40, 54, 58, 59
56. Consumer and economic planning	5	17, 26	49, 58	63
57. Consumption and social welfare	3	42, 47, 51
58. Distribution of wealth and income	24	14, 16, 17, 24, 26, 27, 29	36, 40, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 49, 50, 51, 54, 57, 59, 60, 61	66, 70

TABLE 1—Continued

TOPIC	FREQUENCY IN ALL COURSES	COURSES IN WHICH TOPIC OCCURS		
		Secondary-School Courses	College Courses	Courses for Adults and Clubs
VII. The consumer and public welfare (<i>continued</i>):				
59. Housing.....	7	1, 19	43, 44, 45, 51, 56
60. Individual security.....	5	2, 16	52, 57, 61
61. Problem of the consumer.....	24	4, 5, 13, 14, 18, 20, 26, 31, 33, 35	36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 50, 52, 53, 57, 59,	66, 69, 71
62. Public utilities....	5	2, 19, 23	54, 57
63. Role of consumer in economic society.....	29	1, 3, 4, 5, 16, 17, 18, 21, 22, 24, 25, 26, 27, 31, 35	36, 39, 40, 44, 50, 51, 53, 54, 55, 58, 59, 60	66, 70
64. Standard of living.....	21	14, 16, 17, 19, 20, 22, 24	40, 42, 44, 46, 47, 49, 50, 51, 54, 57, 59, 60, 61	70
VIII. Principles of consumption.....	72	(34)	(38)
65. Consumers' choice.....	20	1, 3, 4, 5, 18, 21, 24, 26, 27, 31, 35	36, 43, 45, 51, 53, 54, 55, 58, 60
66. Consumers' goals.....	2	58, 60
67. Consumption as an art.....	3	8, 26	44
68. Consumption and culture.....	10	4, 8, 16, 27	42, 43, 44, 47, 49, 61
69. Consumption as a science.....	6	8, 17	44, 54, 58, 60
70. Human wants....	15	3, 21, 26, 27, 31, 35	38, 42, 43, 47, 49, 51, 54, 58, 60
71. Meaning of consumption economics.....	16	3, 7, 13, 14, 15, 24, 26, 27, 31	36, 39, 49, 51, 54, 58, 60

In the field of consumers' services the secondary-school courses contain a more representative treatment than do the college courses, but the difference is not nearly so great as in the handling of consumers' goods. Surprisingly enough, the adult courses completely neglect the important area of consumers' services. Services like *communication, transportation, light and power, and recreation* do not receive attention commensurate with their importance in the present instructional program. The only service that is commonly studied is *insurance*. It is obvious that this general area will be more extensively developed as the output of consumption materials increases.

The study of general buying problems is given a slightly greater emphasis in the college courses than are the two fields already considered. *Advertising* is not only the most frequent general buying topic but also one of the two most frequent of all the fields of inquiry. *Price* and *retail selling methods* rank among the topics in the first order of frequency. *Standards and grades; brand names, labels, and specifications; wastes in consumption; and frauds and swindles* are also commonly found. General buying problems are treated separately in a large percentage of the courses. The difficulty with the study of these themes in isolation is that they have to be relearned as they apply to each of the commodity groups. The treatment of these problems follows the common practice in many academic fields—studying generalizations. A topic like *brand names* when applied to textile fabrics has a rich and specialized content because much progress has been made in this field, but it is remote from anything that has developed in the field of furniture. It would be more desirable to consider such general aspects of buying as *standards, labels, measures, misrepresentation*, and the like as they arise in connection with each commodity or group of commodities.

The financial problems of the consumer do not occur so frequently in college courses as they do in secondary-school courses because a number of the latter are taught by commercial teachers, who would be expected to stress monetary affairs. *Banking and household accounting and budgeting* are the highest ranking topics among the consumers' financial problems. *Borrowing and lending, buying and renting a home, and instalment buying* are second in order of frequency in

this group. In general, the pecuniary problems of the consumer are given a relatively high degree of recognition in consumer courses.

Apparently consumers' activities touch the field of government at many points. In particular, there is a marked tendency to ascertain the variety of ways in which the government can and may protect the consumer. Indeed, this theme was the most frequent of all that were analyzed. However, the consumer does not appear to be entirely satisfied with the help that he has been able to secure from political agencies. If the frequency of treatment in consumer courses is any index of trends, then it is undeniably true that the consumer is giving much attention to self-help through voluntary collective effort. *Consumer organizations* and *consumer education* are study themes of the first order of importance. The *co-operative movement*, *private agencies for consumer aid*, and *sources of information* are topics of secondary rank. While the study of the *co-operative movement* is fairly frequent in the college courses, it is still neglected in the secondary courses. In general, the treatment of *consumer organization* is most often found at the college level.

The relation of consumption to the common welfare receives an adequate treatment in consumption courses. There is an important economic field of inquiry which is designated as the *problem of the consumer* and which is studied as such. The *role of the consumer in economic society* is another frequent topic of study. The dependence of the consumers' welfare on the *distribution of wealth and income* is widely apprehended if the relatively high frequency of this theme is a guide. This topic is most often treated in the college, presumably because it can be understood best at that educational level. The *standard of living* is another topic appearing often in this group. Frequently it is only another social phase of the consumer problem which is closely related in treatment to income distribution. Matters of public welfare as they relate to the consumer are exceptionally well covered in the college group.

Certain general principles of consumption are included, but they are not so numerous as the more concrete phases of the subject. *Consumers' choice*, the *meaning of consumption economics*, *human wants*, and *consumption and culture* are the most frequent fields of inquiry in this group. While these topics are more often taught at

the college level than at the secondary-school level, the difference is not great. Theoretical topics occur most frequently in college courses growing out of the influence of the basic courses in the principles of economics.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE LEARNING ACTIVITIES

For purposes of studying the learning activities, the seventy-one courses used in making the tabulation were supplemented by sixteen others which were received in the form of descriptive statements or letters. I also had available a few additional courses which were received after the tabulation was completed. This phase of the discussion draws on fifty-five sources which gave an insight into the nature of the learning procedure. It is safe to assume that the practices discussed here represent the upper 50 per cent of the courses in quality.

When the learning procedures used in consumer education are appraised, it is necessary to distinguish between verbal activities of listening, reading, writing, reciting, answering questions, and the more direct sensory experiences of observing, manipulating, experimenting, testing, and compounding. Much of the procedure in consumer education is still exclusively wordy, but there is encouraging evidence of experiential learning in this field.

By and large it can scarcely be said that consumer education is, as yet, dominated by the textbook since only eight of the instructors appear to use a single book. Where a textbook is used, it is more often found at the college level than at the secondary level. Most instructors make a special point of emphasizing the flexibility of the outline of the course. Indeed, many apologies for failure to send an outline were due to this cause. Nearly as many mimeographed textbooks as printed textbooks are used in these courses. It appears that seven mimeographed books are in use in consumer education. The use of a mimeographed book may be an expedient which teachers are obliged to adopt when a satisfactory printed textbook is not available. It suggests, too, that these manuscripts may develop into a forthcoming crop of textbooks in this field. Six of the courses report the consistent use of the buying reports of Consumers Union and Consumers' Research. It is reasonable to assume, however, that many more classes make use of these materials.

The use of a mimeographed syllabus or set of guide sheets is rather frequent. Of the total number of courses examined, fifteen were in this form. Four of these syllabi include a fairly large body of informational content of a textual nature. Specially prepared printed syllabi or textbooks were used in three of the courses for adults.

At the present time the informational content of courses in consumer education comes from a large variety of books, pamphlets, documents, and magazine articles. It is unlikely that the future courses will draw to any smaller degree on collateral readings even if textbooks in this field become more numerous. Two instructors report that they provide for classroom use several sets of ten or more copies of the basic books in the field of consumer education. Six instructors report that they have developed an extensive file of such fugitive materials as pamphlets and clippings, which are carefully classified under the topics ordinarily falling within the field of consumption economics. These are used for class work and for individual research projects. It is hoped that this practice will spread, for without accumulated current materials it is impossible to keep up with the rapid changes in the buying market. The collection of printed matter must become a continuous systematic procedure, in which the teacher and the student keep in touch with material as it comes off the press.

Some of the less conventional learning practices of a verbal nature, such as reports, discussion, and student notebooks, are frequently reported. These are improvements over the pure recitation and help to give variety to the classroom procedure. In twelve courses the student is given an opportunity to make an individual report on a special topic which he selects, such as the care of furs. The statement in eight of the courses that time is devoted to discussion is intended, presumably, to emphasize the fact that the work is not limited to lectures. In three instances the student is required to submit an individual notebook or scrapbook in which he keeps some of his individual reports, clippings, and illustrations.

Since the survey which was reported in September, 1935, there is an encouraging increase in the number of courses that provide for practical experiences. At least twenty-eight of the courses make provision for a certain amount of direct experience. Students are

encouraged to make investigations of buying problems. Magazine articles and illustrations are brought to class to supplement the information from the ordinary sources. Several courses give the students an opportunity to carry on experiments and to make demonstrations before the class. The illegitimate use of science in advertising is investigated. One instructor reports the collection of cans of various sizes to be used in the making of a chart showing the net weight of the contents. Various types of savings plans are investigated; these grow out of the experience of the pupils and involve computation of annual rate of interest. The labels on packages are studied in order to discover how much information they give. The uses of standards in such fields as food products are inquired into: canned goods are opened, examined, and graded. Students are asked to plan life-insurance programs and to draw up personal budgets or family budgets. One college course consists wholly of laboratory and field experiences. Students are given an opportunity to see a demonstration of grading, packing, and handling of vegetables. They see a demonstration of wholesale cuts of beef. They visit refrigerator cars and examine the methods of shipment of perishable goods. The students visit markets, select provisions, and prepare food for the ultimate test of quality.

Three courses require the student to make comprehensive individual researches on a single commodity, such as hosiery, cosmetics, children's clothing, and the like. In science courses this research involves the making of a chemical and physical analysis of a commodity like tooth paste. Laboratory experiments and demonstrations are reported in five of the courses. In four courses the students make visits to stores and factories, where they may study selling or manufacturing practices or may be addressed by buyers or guides. In four instances outside speakers are invited to address a class at school. Three instructors include an elaborate culminating program, to which visitors are invited and in which all the students are given an opportunity to participate. Committee projects are mentioned in two courses; the work here involves investigations in which a report is co-operatively prepared. Three courses include a suggested list of projects, a limited number of which the students are required to complete. On the basis of information that was supplied by instructors,

it must be concluded that audio-visual materials are used only to a limited degree. Two courses report the use of motion pictures and lantern slides; two courses report the use of posters; and one course reports the use of radio broadcasts.

Mention has been made of the slight tendency toward the collection and classification of printed matter. The collection of equipment and supplies is reported in only one case. It is to be hoped that this lack is an omission of fact and not one of experience, because it would be hopeless to build laboratory or experimental programs without an abundant stock of commodities, measuring instruments, testing materials, mechanical appliances, and the like.

SOME GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

This study of classroom procedures seems to indicate that not enough opportunity is provided for group activity. Too many of the projects are carried out single-handed, although the exigencies of life will often require co-operative work on a project. The tendency to rely on authoritative current sources of information is a wholesome development in this field. There is little indication, if any, that the students are given an opportunity to share in planning the scope of the work and the character of each separate enterprise. Such a procedure should be developed more extensively in order that purpose and meaning may be given to the learning experiences of the school. It is necessary to avoid that confusion between consumer education and business education which results in a hybrid product unacceptable to any person interested in the ultimate welfare of the consumer. Such courses are pitched to the level of the small businessman, whose interests are not identical with those of the consumer. The danger of making consumer education verbal and encyclopedic appears to be declining. Yet it cannot be denied that a substantial number of courses do not get beyond the informational stage. There is a need to guard against the use of materials which are prepared for the purpose of increasing the sale of a particular product.

Educators who are watching the development of the field of consumer education must become aware of the dangers that inhere in the impending deluge of textbooks in this field. The abuse of the textbook may result in courses that consist of a series of topics for

discussion and not of problems to be solved; of chapters to be read and not of situations to be experienced; of recitations to be heard and not of attempts to change behavior. The information included in textbook courses would serve best if it were treated as source material in solving the real buying problems of youths and their families. A systematic enumeration of the several kinds of insurance considered in isolation does not challenge the learner. If a specific actual situation is taken up, the inquiry into insurance rates, the number of payments a year, etc., begins to have significance. The inquiry broadens as more and more information is needed to solve all the problems which the pupils inevitably raise. Such a program does not consist of a succession of topics to be read or discussed; it becomes a series of enterprises based on real situations in which pupil planning is an important part. An adolescent girl does not work up enthusiasm over an unimaginative account of the six classes of cotton fabrics, but she can become mightily concerned about the choice of a party dress.

It has been shown that an increasing number of courses in consumer education involve a variety of activities reproducing life-situations as far as possible. I must continue to insist that the study of consumption is likely to degenerate into mere talk unless it is accompanied by firsthand contacts with materials and conditions in the store and the home. The activities should include testing, weighing, measuring, manipulating, constructing, sampling, and the like. There should be an abundance of observation and experimentation, some of which will consist of individual experiments and some of demonstrations. Many experiments can be performed with materials brought in from the home. The common commodities should be extensively used in the experimental activities. The work of the school should be extended into the community. The students should make journeys into business and scientific establishments of all kinds to secure an understanding of practices and conditions which actually operate in life.

The analysis of the course outlines reveals a recognition of some of the ailments of an acquisitive society. Thirteen courses include a unit on *frauds*, and sixty-four courses consider protection for the consumer through voluntary and governmental agencies and the

courts of law. These topics represent the negative phase of the consumer movement, which is revealed not only in the discussion of *frauds* but also in the treatment of *drugs and cosmetics*, *advertising*, *retail selling methods*, and *brand names*. This negative phase is the product of the critical literature of consumption which was characteristic of the early period of the consumer uprising. It performed an important function in the press, platform, and school, but from now on the mere railing against frauds will have to be replaced by informed buying and intelligent use of commodities. This approach will gradually eliminate the purely critical or negative topics as separate units of consumer courses.

There is some evidence that at least a substantial number of courses will be concerned with more than a mere consideration of the purely individual aspects of consumer education. In these courses there is recognition of the need of improving living for all consumers through a more fundamental consideration of social and economic arrangements. A society is presented in which ownership is dominant, in which the press is subservient to business, in which there is an inequitable distribution of income, in which individual security does not exist for the many, and in which the downward swing of the business cycle is beyond control. Such topics as the *distribution of wealth and income*, *business cycles*, *consumer and economic planning*, *individual security*, and the *standard of living* imply a basic treatment of the role of the consumer in a democratic society.

COURSES IN CONSUMPTION USED IN THIS STUDY

SECONDARY-SCHOOL COURSES

1. BECKER, HARRY A., and COLEMAN, J., Teachers of Social Studies, Hamden High School, Hamden, Connecticut. "How Can the Consumer Buy Goods Intelligently?"
2. BEEMAN, L. LOUIS, Head of Social Science Department, Santa Ana Junior College, Santa Ana, California. "Consumers' Problems."
3. BEHR, FLORENCE, Librarian, Torrance High School, Torrance, California. "Development of Intelligent Consumers."
4. BERKOWITZ, H. A., Farrell High School, Farrell, Pennsylvania. "Course in Consumership."
5. CAPLAN, H. E., Instructor in Home Economics, Ellwood City High School, Ellwood City, Pennsylvania. "Consumer Economics."
6. CURRICULUM COMMITTEE, HOME ECONOMICS DEPARTMENT, LOS ANGELES CITY SCHOOLS, Los Angeles, California. "Consumer Education."

7. DAVIS, LODA MAE, San Mateo Junior College, San Mateo, California. "Problems of the Consumer."
8. DAVIS, RUTH S., Teacher of Home Economics, North High School, Columbus, Ohio. "The High-School Student as a Consumer and Her Problems."
9. DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, VOCATIONAL DIVISION. "Consumer Buyer Education." Trenton, New Jersey: State Department of Public Instruction, 1935. Pp. 21 (mimeographed).
10. PAUL, EDWIN, 2215 Saratoga Drive, Louisville, Kentucky. A proposed consumer-education course based on an analysis of consumers' questions and problems (1936).
11. ELLIOTT, ROXANA, Instructor in Chemistry, Piedmont High School, Piedmont, California. "Household Chemistry."
12. FLAGET, HAZELLE C., Clothing Department, Sheboygan Vocational School, Sheboygan, Wisconsin. "The Intelligent Consumer."
13. FOWLER, MARGUERITE D. Chairman, Commercial Curriculum Committee for Secondary Schools. "Social Business Education: A Tentative Course of Study in Consumer Education." Louisville, Kentucky: Louisville Public Schools, 1936 (mimeographed).
14. FREMBLING, L. R., Instructor of Consumer Education, Lodi Union High School, Lodi, California. "Consumer Education."
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TRAITS OF COLLEGE-GOING, EMPLOYED, AND UNEMPLOYED HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES

ARNOLD M. CHRISTENSEN

State Teachers College, Moorhead, Minnesota



THE purpose of this article is to present the findings obtained by administering the Bernreuter Personality Inventory to three groups of high-school graduates in western Minnesota. As personality traits may be useful in vocational guidance, especially from the adjustive standpoint, such light as this report may add to the understanding of the relation of personality traits to guidance may be of general interest.

For the purpose of obtaining part of the data needed to make a comprehensive study of the educational and social aspects of high-school graduates in western Minnesota, questionnaires were sent in the spring of 1933 to 4,222 persons who had been graduated in the years 1929-33 by 33 high schools in that part of the state. One of the questions asked the high-school graduate to indicate whether, if a form were sent him for the purpose, he would give his personal reactions to a number of common situations which arise in every person's life. The majority of the 2,125 graduates who returned the questionnaires were willing to give these reactions.

The questionnaires received were classified in three groups: "In college now," "Employed now," and "Unemployed now." They were then filed alphabetically by school and by year of graduation. Eighty men and eighty women in each of the three groups (480 in all) were then selected to take the Bernreuter Personality Inventory. Those to whom this self-administering personality test were sent were selected in such a way as to represent, as accurately as possible, the graduates from every high school. In order that the influence of the college factor might be eliminated, no inventories were sent to persons in the employed and the unemployed groups who had ever attended college. The graduates were further informed that the re-

sults would be held in strict confidence and that their scores would be sent to them if they would inclose self-addressed, stamped envelopes. Four hundred and five returned the personality tests, and most of these asked for their scores. The returns were such as to indicate an excellent distribution among the various high schools and for each of the five years covered by the investigation, the factors of school and age being thus largely equalized.

The Bernreuter Personality Inventory "was constructed to determine the feasibility of estimating more than a single personality trait at one time. It assumes that the integrated behavior of an individual in any situation may be interpreted from various points of view. Thus the behavior of a man who is criticized for his actions may be symptomatic both of the extent to which he tends to submit to authority and of the stability of his emotional control."¹ The inventory attempts to measure four aspects of personality, namely, neurotic tendency, self-sufficiency, introversion-extroversion, and dominance-submission. As introversion-extroversion scores correlate highly with those for neurotic tendency, neurotic tendency was not treated separately in this study.

Before the results obtained from the Bernreuter tests are presented, some of the differences between the employed and the unemployed groups will be noted. The employed men earned an average of \$11.82 a week, and the employed women earned an average of \$10.30 a week. The lowest wage was \$2.00 a week. The persons selected for this study were not working for their parents. The unemployed had, of course, not been continuously unemployed since they left high school, but they had been unemployed longer, on the average, than those who were employed at the time of the study. The average difference in duration of unemployment between the two groups was one year and six months for the men and over ten months for the women. Most of the employed men were engaged in commercial, transportation, and agricultural services, and most of the employed women were engaged in personal and clerical services.

The question arises whether the three groups under consideration possess such traits as self-sufficiency, introversion-extroversion, and

¹ Robert G. Bernreuter, "Validity of the Personality Inventory," *Personnel Journal*, XI (April, 1933), 383.

TABLE 1

SCORES ON SELF-SUFFICIENCY, INTROVERSION-EXTROVERSION, AND DOMINANCE-SUBMISSION ON BERNREUTER PERSONALITY INVENTORY FOR COLLEGE, EMPLOYED, AND UNEMPLOYED MEN AND WOMEN

GROUPS COMPARED*	MEAN SCORE	STANDARD DEVIATION	DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEAN SCORES	STANDARD ERROR OF DIFFERENCE	DIFF. S.E.-diff.
Self-Sufficiency†					
Men:					
College (73)	42.12	53.80	15.35	9.13	1.68
Employed (62)	26.77	52.08			
College (73)	42.12	53.80	20.14	8.46	2.38
Unemployed (63)	21.98	44.86			
Employed (62)	26.77	52.08	4.79	8.70	0.55
Unemployed (63)	21.98	44.86			
Women:					
College (71)	18.38	53.78	4.80	9.79	0.49
Employed (66)	23.18	60.28			
College (71)	18.38	53.78	10.52	7.90	1.33
Unemployed (70)	7.86	38.97			
Employed (66)	23.18	60.28	15.32	8.76	1.75
Unemployed (70)	7.86	38.97			
Introversion-Extroversion‡					
Men:					
College (73)	-38.43	47.60	2.43	7.80	0.31
Employed (62)	-40.86	42.86			
College (73)	-38.43	47.69	10.89	8.11	1.34
Unemployed (63)	-27.54	46.69			
Employed (62)	-40.97	42.86	13.43	8.01	1.68
Unemployed (63)	-27.54	46.69			
Women:					
College (71)	-14.44	45.06	0.42	7.91	0.05
Employed (66)	-14.86	47.40			
College (71)	-14.44	45.06	5.56	7.77	0.72
Unemployed (70)	-20.00	47.22			
Employed (66)	-14.86	47.40	5.14	8.12	0.63
Unemployed (70)	-20.00	47.22			

TABLE 1—Continued

GROUPS COMPARED*	MEAN SCORE	STANDARD DEVIATION	DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEAN SCORES	STANDARD ERROR OF DIFFERENCE	DIFF. S.E. diff.
Dominance-Submission§					
Men:					
College (73)	66.91	62.58	4.17	9.73	0.43
Employed (62)	62.74	50.42			
College (73)	66.91	62.58	33.02	10.77	3.07
Unemployed (63)	33.89	62.62			
Employed (62)	62.74	50.42	28.85	10.16	2.84
Unemployed (63)	33.89	62.62			
Women:					
College (71)	28.38	66.39	16.93	11.50	1.47
Employed (66)	45.31	68.00			
College (71)	28.38	66.39	9.53	10.09	0.94
Unemployed (70)	18.85	52.79			
Employed (66)	45.31	68.00	26.46	10.48	2.52
Unemployed (70)	18.85	52.79			

* The numbers in parentheses in this column represent the numbers of cases in the groups.

† The individual who scores high on the self-sufficiency scale is a self-sufficient person.

‡ The individual who scores high on the introversion-extroversion scale is introspective and given to autistic thinking.

§ The individual who scores high on the dominance-submission scale is dominant in face-to-face situations with his equals.

dominance-submission in different degrees. Are those who attend college more self-sufficient, more extrovert, more dominant than those who have not attended college but are employed or than those who are not employed? Are the employed graduates more self-sufficient, more extrovert, more dominant than those who are unemployed? Do such differences as exist between any two groups among the men also exist between any two groups among the women? These and other similar questions are answered by the measurements presented in Table I.

No statistically significant difference appears between any two of the groups compared with respect to the trait of self-sufficiency. The difference between the college men and the unemployed men is close to statistical significance, but the difference between the employed and the unemployed men is far from significant. There are distinct differences in self-sufficiency between the college women and

the unemployed women, and between the employed and the unemployed women. In each case the unemployed group tends strongly to be less self-sufficient, but none of the differences is statistically significant and cannot, therefore, be depended on completely.

Both college men and employed men tend strongly to be more extrovert than unemployed men, but again the differences are not statistically significant. With regard to introversion-extroversion, the three groups of women are about equal.

In the case of dominance-submission scores, one difference is statistically significant, namely, the difference between the college men and the unemployed men, the college men being more dominant than the unemployed men. The difference in the mean scores of the employed and the unemployed men and that between the scores of the employed and the unemployed women approach significance. Statistically the chances are 9,977 in 10,000 that there is a real difference between the employed and the unemployed men, and 9,945 chances in 10,000 that there is a real difference between the employed and the unemployed women in dominance-submission. The employed men and women, as separate groups, tend strongly, therefore, to be more dominant than the unemployed groups.

It is, of course, difficult to draw conclusions from this study concerning the relations of the traits measured to college attendance, employment, and unemployment. Nor is it to be inferred that dominance, for example, is a causal factor in securing employment or in being able to attend college. Dominance may or may not be developed while one is in college or working at a job, and unemployment may or may not cause one to become submissive. Who knows? The same uncertainty exists in the case of the other two traits measured. The traits examined may enter in and may be far more significant in the case of an individual in his particular set of circumstances than in the case of larger groups. A study reported by Trabue,¹ for example, indicates that traits of the Bernreuter Personality Inventory are related in varying amounts to different occupations. Further study along this line is needed, however, before definite relations can be established.

¹ M. R. Trabue, "Occupational Ability Patterns," *Personnel Journal*, XI (February, 1933), 344-51.

CASE-STUDY PROCEDURES IN GUIDANCE

ARTHUR E. TRAXLER
Educational Records Bureau, New York City



ORIGIN OF CASE STUDIES

THE case-study technique, which has recently begun to assume an important place in educational procedures, is of ancient origin. It is reported that the oldest known case study is a record of child placement presumably made about 4000 B.C.¹ From that time down to the present, case-study procedures have occasionally been employed, but it was not until the latter part of the nineteenth century that case studies were placed on a well-organized basis in connection with certain professions.

One of the most important developments of the case-study method was in the field of law. About 1870, case studies were initiated in the Harvard Law School as a device for training students to think about fundamental principles. In the nineteenth century the medical profession began to develop a literature of medicine based on the accurate observation and recording of cases. The case study has now become a fundamental aspect in the training of medical students. Case-study procedures, because of their obvious value in social investigation, were soon adopted by sociologists. Psychologists were slower to take over the case-study method because until recently they have seldom been interested in the whole personality. The case study is now a basic method in both psychology and psychiatry.

✓ Schools did not begin to adopt case-study practices until the method had been tried out extensively by several of the other professions. As long as teachers were mainly interested in teaching subject matter to groups of pupils, they had no real need for case studies. However, the recent tendency to redirect education to take account of individual differences and the emphasis on mental hy-

¹ Ruth Strang, *Counseling Technics in College and Secondary School*, p. 33. New York: Harper & Bros., 1937.

giene and on guidance have brought into sharp focus the need for understanding each pupil. Consequently an increasing number of schools are turning to the case-study method as an indispensable aid in making adequate provision for their pupils, particularly for pupils who deviate from the average in any important respect.

WHAT THE CASE-STUDY METHOD IS

The term "case study" has been employed in two types of investigations. A study in which real or assumed situations are presented for discussion as a means of arriving at basic principles in a given field has been called a case study. Law case studies are of this sort. A detailed study of an individual conducted for the purpose of bringing about better adjustment of the person who is the subject of the investigation is also known as a case study. It is in the latter sense that the term will be employed in this article.

In a case study of this kind all available data about an individual are surveyed, and the significant items are assembled, organized, and studied in order that the nature and the causes of difficulties may be discovered and that treatment designed to remove the difficulties may be planned and carried out. Thinking will perhaps be clarified if a distinction is made between case studies and case histories. A case history presents the story of an individual in as complete and as objective a form as possible. It does not interpret the data, and it does not, in itself, bring to a focus the information on the present problems faced by the individual. If the school maintains a complete cumulative-record system, it has a continuous and an up-to-date case history for every pupil in the school.

Since the first task in making a case study is to obtain the facts about the individual, the initial stages of the case study are almost identical with the case history. Thus, if the school has a cumulative-record system, a great part of the arduous work of gathering data for a case study is cared for as a matter of routine. The case study, however, goes far beyond the case history. A case history is largely a clerical task, but keen intelligence and insight are called for in making a case study. The facts available in the case history are marshaled and interpreted, and a diagnosis is made which will serve as a starting point for treatment.

The question may be raised whether the treatment of the case is a part of the case study or is a procedure that follows the case study. The case studies and the case-study outlines appearing in recent educational and psychological literature exhibit no uniformity in this respect. Some case studies end with the diagnosis; others report extended treatment and the results that attended the treatment. Notwithstanding the fact that treatment is not included in some case studies, it should be clearly understood that every case study implies treatment; otherwise there would be no point in making the study. After the facts have been analyzed and a tentative diagnosis has been formulated, treatment should follow and, if possible, should become a part of the case-study record. Whether the treatment is recorded as a part of the case study will depend, to a large extent, on how the case is handled. If the person who initiates the case study also applies the treatment, a record of the treatment will ordinarily be added to the case study. If the case is referred to another person for treatment (for example, if a case of personality adjustment is referred to a psychiatrist), it may not be practicable to report the treatment in the case study. In cases treated by a specialist in psychiatric problems, facts are sometimes discovered which are of such a confidential nature that they should not be set down in writing. In cases of learning difficulty treated in the school, the case study will be much more valuable if it is concluded with a report of the nature of the treatment and of the progress of the pupil during treatment.

ASSEMBLING AND ORGANIZING DATA IN A CASE STUDY

(1) In a case study of a pupil usually the first step is to collect from the school records all important information pertaining to the pupil. The question of whether a given item is important will depend on the nature of the case. If the purpose of the study is to discover the causes of, and to prescribe treatment for, an observed difficulty (for example, inability to deal with situations involving number), only those items in the records which may contribute to an understanding of the difficulty are of immediate importance. However, even in a specialized case of this kind it is desirable to get a complete picture of the pupil, since a particular difficulty can best be interpreted against the background of the whole personality.

If the study is undertaken, not for the purpose of alleviating a special difficulty, but for the purpose of arriving at a thorough understanding of the pupil so that he may be assisted to better adjustment wherever need may manifest itself, every item of information may be important, and the whole record of the pupil should be carefully scrutinized. In schools maintaining cumulative records, including data on the social history, aptitudes, achievement, and personality, the first step of the investigation will be concerned mainly with the pupil's cumulative-record card.

Although the school records should supply much helpful information, even the best of records will not provide complete data. As a rule, the data are entered at regular intervals, and there will usually be a period of several weeks between the time of the last entry on the record and the time of making the case study. The case investigator will, therefore, find it necessary to interview the persons who have contact with the pupil, including classroom teachers, home-room teacher, physical-education instructor, librarian or study-hall supervisor, adviser, and possibly the parents. Notes should be made after each of these interviews, or, better still, each of the teachers and other school officers who are in contact with the pupil should be asked to write out a brief statement concerning the child's attainments, growth, and personality.

③ A third step is to interview the pupil himself and perhaps to give him additional tests. The school records will sometimes provide all the test data necessary, but, if the case is one of learning difficulty in a certain subject, it is improbable that the survey-test scores in the school records will furnish an adequate basis for diagnosis. For example, if the case is one of reading disability, a diagnostic silent-reading test and an oral-reading check test should be employed as a minimum. If the difficulty seems to be in the field of personality, one of the more promising personality inventories, such as the Bernreuter test or the Bell test, may be given, not so much for the purpose of record as for the purpose of securing responses which will form a convenient starting point for interview.

When reasonably complete data about the pupil have been collected, the case should be written up, and a tentative diagnosis and plan of treatment should be formulated. Although a case study could conceivably be conducted without making a written record, the ne-

cessity of putting the study into writing provides excellent training in stating, organizing, and interpreting the facts. Even though the plan is to include the progress of treatment as a part of the study, the case should be written up before treatment starts, and, when treatment is applied, this record should be amplified from time to time. When a written record has been made, it will be helpful to present the case study to the pupil's teachers and to secure their reactions and further suggestions before proceeding with a plan of handling the case.

OUTLINES FOR CASE STUDIES

There is no set way of making a case study. The outlines will vary with the nature of the case and with the preferences of the person conducting the study. If the school maintains a cumulative-record system in which comparable data for a pupil are recorded in organized fashion from year to year, it may be desirable to have the outline of the case study up to the point of diagnosis agree with the outline of the cumulative record.

One of the most detailed and useful outlines for the case-study method available anywhere was published by Morrison.¹ The outline is too long to reproduce here, but teachers contemplating case studies will find it worth their while to look up this outline. The main headings are:

Symptoms	Social history and contacts
Examination	Diagnosis
Health history	Treatment
School history	Follow-up
Family history and home conditions	

Strang² has classified and discussed the content of case histories under the following headings.

Family history	Vocational and educational plans
Developmental history	Objective data from tests and ob-
Home and neighborhood environment	servation
School history	Introspective reports

¹ Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, pp. 644-66. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931.

² Ruth Strang, *op. cit.*, pp. 38-40.

This outline is simple and clear, and it includes one feature that is omitted from some of the other published outlines, namely, "Vocational and educational plans." However, if this outline be adopted, it might be advisable to add a section for diagnosis and suggested treatment.

The following outline was set up recently by a school psychologist as a guide for teacher-advisers in making case summaries, which may be regarded as abbreviated forms of case studies.

Introductory statement	Attitude toward work
Physical condition	Interests and special abilities
Mental ability	Personality
Achievement in school	Summary
Study habits	

In connection with the work of a laboratory school, a school psychologist and a psychiatrist co-operated some time ago in a series of case studies. The psychologist carried on the initial stages of each study and provided a tentative diagnosis. The psychiatrist then took the case over, basing his treatment on a more adequate diagnosis than the psychologist was prepared to make. The outline used by the psychologist in reporting the cases to the psychiatrist could readily be applied to case studies by a classroom teacher. The outline included the following steps.

Introductory statement—identification, age, school grade, etc.	Social history
Intelligence	Health history
Scores on achievement tests	Personality problems
School progress	Observation of pupil
Summary of teachers' statements	Summary
Learning defects	Tentative diagnosis

Among the valuable illustrative case studies appearing in educational literature are those by Reavis,¹ Smithies,² Brewer,³ McCal-

¹ William Claude Reavis, *Pupil Adjustment in Junior and Senior High Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1926.

² Elsie M. Smithies, *Case Studies of Normal Adolescent Girls*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., Inc., 1933.

³ John M. Brewer and Others, *Case Studies in Educational and Vocational Guidance*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1926.

lister,¹ and Hawkes.² The publication by Hawkes should be of special interest to schools maintaining cumulative-record systems, for it contains two significant case studies based on cumulative records.

All case-study outlines have many elements in common. The specific type of outline to be used is not important. Presumably each teacher will wish to formulate his own outline. The main thing is to present the major facts in an orderly fashion and to formulate a plan or using the facts in understanding and helping the pupil.

POINTS TO BE OBSERVED IN MAKING A CASE STUDY

Planning the case study.—The following suggestions are offered to persons who are contemplating the making of a case study for the first time.

1. Select a case in which you are really interested both from the standpoint of the nature of the case and the personality of the individual concerned.
2. If possible, choose a pupil from one of your classes who, you feel, needs attention and help and who will probably co-operate well with you.
3. When considering various pupils, give some thought to the shy, quiet, retiring pupils. Pupils of this type are sometimes more suitable subjects for case study than pupils whose difficulties or behavior causes them to be noticed.
4. Plan only as much as you feel that you can accomplish. If you contemplate a thorough case study, including treatment, it will probably be best in the first year to confine your study to one pupil. If you prefer merely to make case summaries, you can perhaps do several summaries or even summaries for an entire class if it is small.

Collecting the data.—Some of the main points with respect to collecting the data have been set forth earlier in this article. In addition it may be said that, when a pupil is being interviewed and tested for the purpose of securing more data about his difficulties, care should be used not to place him on the defensive. He should not be

¹ James M. McCallister, *Remedial and Corrective Instruction in Reading*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1936.

² Anna Rose Hawkes, "The Cumulative Record and Its Uses," *The Public School Demonstration Project in Educational Guidance*, pp. 37-64. Educational Records Bulletin No. 21. New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1937.

made to feel that he is a culprit or that he is in any way an extreme deviate from his fellow-pupils. The meeting ground of the case investigator and the subject should be one of sharing in the solution of the pupil's problems. If the case investigator can enlist the interest of the pupil and can bring him to take the initiative from the beginning, the prognosis for successful solution of the pupil's problems is excellent.

Writing up the case.—As already indicated, there is no single pattern for writing up the case, but certain general principles should probably be observed.

1. Write objectively, simply, and with directness. Although you should be vitally interested in the case, your report should not reflect personal bias. The description of the case should be as objective and the interpretation should be as impersonal as possible. This rule does not mean that you should avoid interpretation and inference but that you should distinguish meticulously between the facts which you have discovered and the interpretation or the diagnosis based on those facts.

2. In the report of the case use both general statements and specific illustrations. General statements about intelligence, achievement, and personality are much more convincing if they are supported with some definite data.

3. Eliminate irrelevant items; confine the case report to a few typewritten pages.

Applying and evaluating treatment.—Persons who are inexperienced in making case studies often find that the study moves along smoothly until they reach the stage of applying treatment but that this stage presents problems which seem baffling. The observation of a few suggestions may help to clarify these problems.

1. A case investigator should not attempt to apply treatment for difficulties that are entirely outside his experience. If he makes such an attempt, it is probable that he will become involved in an embarrassing situation and that he may do the pupil more harm than good. If the problem is one of learning in his own or a related field, the teacher should be able to handle it. If the problem is one of reading or study difficulty, as so many cases are, he should be able to offer the pupil valuable help in reading and studying the content of his

own special field and perhaps of other fields. The case investigator can also handle many problems which are volitional, which are caused by lack of interest, or which are of a minor behavior character. If, however, the case involves learning adjustments that are entirely foreign to his experience or if it includes obscure personality disorders, the investigator should frankly recognize his inability to meet the situation and should conclude his report with a recommendation for referral.

2. During the period of treatment the case investigator should keep a careful journal record of the progress of treatment. He should not depend on his memory but should write up each interview with the pupil and each significant observation just as soon as possible. Not all of what is written in the journal will find its way into the case report, but a complete journal record is of inestimable help in making a final report at the end of the period of treatment.

3. If the case lends itself to measurement (for example, if it involves achievement in a certain skill or school subject), comparable tests should be administered at the beginning and the end of the treatment. Such tests will take the evaluation of the treatment out of the realm of speculation and will sometimes reveal significant progress under conditions where no conclusions about growth could be made on the basis of observation alone.

4. After a pupil has been released from treatment, he should be followed up and kept under observation for a few months to make sure that a relapse does not take place. Follow-up is especially important in cases involving skills, such as reading, spelling, and arithmetic. Some pupils who make marked gains on tests during a period of teaching will tend to return to their old habits unless they are carefully supervised.

5. Throughout the study the case worker should constantly keep in mind the whole personality development of the pupil. Every case study, regardless of its immediate purpose, has implications that are much broader than the acquisition of a limited area of subject matter or the mastery of certain skills. In the last analysis, each case study must be evaluated according to the contribution that it makes to the better adjustment of the pupil in his school environment and in his out-of-school relationships.

INFLUENCE OF THE STUDY OF LATIN ON WORD KNOWLEDGE

FREDERICK L. POND

Meadville High School, Meadville, Pennsylvania



QUESTIONING OF TRADITIONAL CURRICULUMS

THE prevailing trend toward functional aims in secondary education has produced a critical examination of the subjects which compose the traditional curriculum. Because of the doubt cast on the educational process, particularly during the period of economic tension, a demand is created for the analysis of aims and the testing of results.

The doubt cast on old pedagogical procedures by modern testing methods and statistical techniques has produced a drive toward specific, utilitarian aims. Although voices are still heard crying in the educational wilderness, the trend of opinion, especially in the secondary field, is undoubtedly toward the functional ideal. The failure of automatic transfer to manifest itself and of incidental teaching of generalized objectives to produce reliable results has apparently made untenable an educational philosophy based on such premises. However, the degree of attainment of the objectives of the study of Latin which transfers into English word knowledge may present evidence of the general possibility of securing critical ratios of statistically reliable degree in transfer situations in general.

EARLIER STUDIES

The third objective of the Classical Investigation¹ is: "increased ability to understand the exact meaning of English words derived directly or indirectly from Latin, and increased accuracy in their use." Cited under this objective is the Thorndike-Grinstead study showing that "52 per cent of the 17,303 English words most com-

¹ *The Classical Investigation Conducted by the Advisory Committee of the American Classical League: Part I, General Report, pp. 42-44. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1924.*

monly occurring in the reading material examined are of Latin origin." The objective of ability to understand English words of Latin origin was regarded as valid by 98 per cent of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire of the Classical Investigation. Results in their own schools were considered satisfactory by 66 per cent of the teachers considering the objective valid.

The study of Thorndike and Ruger, cited by the Classical Investigation, showed that pupils who had studied Latin for two semesters made an average growth in their knowledge of English words derived from Latin which was two and a half times the growth made by their non-Latin classmates of the same initial vocabulary ability and that pupils who had studied Latin for four semesters made an average growth in their knowledge of these words several times greater than that made by non-Latin pupils of the same initial vocabulary ability. Yet, as one examines this study, it is surprising to find that no allowance was made for the possible superiority in general intelligence, and therefore in learning rate, of the Latin group.

Other studies may be cited:

1. College Freshmen with one, two, or three years of high-school Latin scored about the same as Freshmen who had not studied Latin, while students with four years of Latin were distinctly superior in spelling, in ability to define words, and in rhetoric, to students who had not studied Latin.¹

2. Between groups equated on scholarship and tested in spelling, reproduction, dictation, Latin derivation, definition, English composition, and English grammar, Latin pupils were found superior in derivation and grammar only.²

3. Method plays an important part in the results. The amount of automatic transfer is very slight, but results can be achieved if rules and principles of derivation are taught.³

¹ Lynn Harold Harris, "A Study in the Relation of Latin to English Composition," *School and Society*, II (August 14, 1915), 251-52.

² M. Theresa Dallam, "Is the Study of Latin Advantageous to the Study of English?" *Educational Review*, LIV (December, 1917), 500-503.

³ A. A. Hamblen, *An Investigation To Determine the Extent to Which the Effect of the Study of Latin upon a Knowledge of English Derivatives Can Be Increased by Conscious Adaptation of Content and Method to the Attainment of This Objective*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1925.

4. The meanings of a great number of Latin-derived words have undergone such change that Latin students are not aided in reasoning word meanings from the foundation provided by high-school Latin.¹

5. When pupils were paired on the basis of intelligence quotients, the vocabulary of Latin pupils was found to surpass that of non-Latin pupils by 33 per cent.²

6. When students were paired on the bases of sex, chronological age, intelligence quotient, economic status, number of years spent in the study of modern foreign language, and English marks, little, if any, difference between Latin and non-Latin pupils was found with respect to vocabulary knowledge.³

The contradiction between the conclusions presented by the last two studies may be due to the use in both of short, informal testing instruments.

THE PROBLEM

The problem presents itself as one of several phases: (1) Do pupils who have studied or are studying Latin possess more extensive English vocabularies than pupils who have had no acquaintance with the subject? (2) For those pupils who have studied Latin, what has been the relative contribution to their English vocabularies of general intelligence, reading experiences, number of semesters of Latin study, and achievement in Latin? (3) Does a statistically reliable difference exist between matched groups of Latin students and non-Latin students with respect to knowledge of English vocabulary, as measured by modern testing instruments?

KNOWLEDGE OF ENGLISH VOCABULARY

The Survey Test of Vocabulary, Form Z, prepared for the Nation-wide Study of English,⁴ was administered to a random sample of 208

¹ Jacob S. Orleans, "Possible Transfer Value of the Study of Latin to English Vocabulary," *School and Society*, XVI (November 11, 1922), 559-60.

² Alvah Talbot Otis, "The Relation of Latin Study to Ability in English Vocabulary and Composition," *School Review*, XXX (January, 1922), 45-50.

³ Harl R. Douglass and Clifford Kittelson, "The Transfer of Training in High School Latin to English Grammar, Spelling, and Vocabulary," *Journal of Experimental Education*, IV (September, 1935), 26-33.

⁴ L. J. O'Rourke, *Rebuilding the English Usage Curriculum To Insure Greater Mastery of Essentials*. A Report of a Nation-wide Study of English. Washington: Psychological Institute, 1934.

pupils distributed in Grade IX B to Grade XII A as shown in Table 1. The test consists of one hundred items of the multiple-choice type. It is based on the Thorndike list of twenty thousand words, five words selected from each thousand of the list being presented. Seventy-three of the one hundred words in the test are of Latin derivation.

The vocabulary scores obtained by 79 Latin pupils and by 129 non-Latin pupils are shown in Table 2. A biserial correlation of $.29 \pm .08$ was found between vocabulary knowledge and participation in Latin study. The vocabulary scores of the Latin pupils were higher than those of the non-Latin pupils, and there was a positive

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS ACCORDING TO GRADE

Grade	Number of Pupils	Grade	Number of Pupils
IX B.....	26	XI A.....	20
IX A.....	24	XII B.....	20
X B	25	XII A.....	21
X A.....	32		
XI B.....	40	Total.....	208

relation between the study of Latin and knowledge of English vocabulary. However, a point for further consideration is presented by the fact that the means of the intelligence quotients on the Otis Self-administering Tests of Mental Ability were 109.18 for the Latin group and 102.45 for the non-Latin group. These data invite further speculation concerning the relative contributions of general intelligence and the study of Latin to a knowledge of English vocabulary.

INFLUENCE OF INTELLIGENCE AND OTHER FACTORS

The partial-correlation technique provides a procedure by which various factors conditioning an effect may be weighted to the degree in which individually they contribute to the whole. For the measurement of general intelligence the scores on the Otis Self-administering Tests of Mental Ability were available. Reading experiences, consisting of quantity and quality of the pupils' reading, were measured by an informal test, which showed a reliability coefficient of .89.

The number of semesters of Latin study and the school achievement in the subject were secured from the school records. The achievement score was the average mark made by the pupil in Latin while he had taken the course or the average to the date of the study in case he was still enrolled in the subject. The basis of the school mark was the score made on the tests furnished by the Co-operative

TABLE 2
SCORES ON TEST OF ENGLISH VOCABULARY MADE BY
79 PUPILS WHO HAD STUDIED LATIN AND BY 129
PUPILS WHO HAD NOT STUDIED LATIN

SCORE	NUMBER OF PUPILS	
	Having Studied Latin	Not Having Studied Latin
85-89.	2
80-84.	2	1
75-79.	2	3
70-74.	4	3
65-69.	4	4
60-64.	10	8
55-59.	13	17
50-54.	14	22
45-49.	8	20
40-44.	11	22
35-39.	7	19
30-34.	2	6
25-29.		4
Mean score.	54.90	49.13

Test Service. These scores for the seventy-nine Latin pupils who participated in the study formed the basis for the zero-order correlations and the partial-regression coefficients shown in Table 3. The partial-regression coefficients indicate the relative weights of general intelligence, reading experiences, semesters of Latin, and achievement in Latin in contributing to vocabulary knowledge.

One is compelled to conclude that the quantity and the quality of student reading did not contribute greatly to the possession of vocabulary knowledge. Achievement in Latin was found to be inferior to the number of semesters during which the subject was studied. This finding confirms results of previous investigations

which have found only slight differences between groups with at least two or three years of experience in Latin and groups with no Latin.¹

The major contribution of general intelligence as a conditioning factor is apparent. If, then, one considers the vocabulary scores of two similar Latin and non-Latin groups, matched on the bases of sex, general intelligence, chronological age, school achievement, and number of semesters in school, no significant difference in vocabulary knowledge would be expected.

TABLE 3
PARTIAL-REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS AND ZERO-ORDER
CORRELATIONS FOR VARIABLES CONDITIONING
VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

Factor Correlated	Partial-Regression Coefficient	Correlation with Score on English Vocabulary Test
1. General intelligence4404	.5826
2. Reading experiences1882	.3143
3. Semesters of Latin study3752	.4336
4. Achievement in Latin1366	.3997

VOCABULARY SCORES OF MATCHED PAIRS OF PUPILS

Thirty matched pairs were selected from the 79 Latin pupils and the 129 non-Latin pupils included in the study. These were matched simultaneously on the bases of intelligence quotient on the Otis test, sex, chronological age, school achievement, and semesters of attendance. The Latin group had experienced from one to five semesters of Latin study. The non-Latin group consisted of pupils who were pursuing technical or commercial subjects not involving the study of Latin. In the matching, a slight advantage was purposely created in favor of the Latin group—away from the “hunch” that statistically reliable results would not be found. The vocabulary scores secured by the two groups are indicated in Table 4.

There is a difference of 2 between the means of the gains. This

a) Lynn Harold Harris, *op. cit.*

b) Harl R. Douglass and Clifford Kittelson, *op. cit.*

difference is .36 times its standard error, the chances being only 1.78 to 1 that the vocabulary scores of the Latin group will always be

TABLE 4
SCORES ON TEST OF ENGLISH VOCABULARY MADE
BY MATCHED PAIRS OF LATIN AND
NON-LATIN PUPILS

PAIR	SCORE OF PUPIL		
	Having Studied Latin	Having Studied No Latin	Difference in Favor of Latin
1.....	61	65	- 4
2.....	74	62	12
3.....	60	46	14
4.....	64	64	0
5.....	55	74	- 19
6.....	70	46	24
7.....	67	46	21
8.....	57	43	14
9.....	57	38	19
10.....	50	59	- 9
11.....	49	50	- 1
12.....	43	50	- 7
13.....	46	53	- 7
14.....	66	42	24
15.....	38	45	- 7
16.....	50	83	- 33
17.....	51	37	14
18.....	50	49	1
19.....	57	60	- 3
20.....	43	46	- 3
21.....	47	50	- 3
22.....	44	52	- 8
23.....	45	45	0
24.....	57	49	8
25.....	53	55	- 2
26.....	48	54	- 6
27.....	53	40	13
28.....	55	43	12
29.....	35	41	- 6
30.....	45	43	2
Mean.....	53	51	2

greater than zero. Similarly, Douglass and Kittelson reported little, if any, difference in the vocabulary knowledge of Latin and non-Latin groups when tested by informal tests.

CONCLUSION

1. There was a positive biserial correlation between the vocabulary scores of members of the random group of 208 pupils and the fact that they had studied Latin. Further examination shows, however, that the group which had had experience with the study of Latin was superior in general intelligence to the group which had not enjoyed that linguistic experience.
2. Partialing out the relative contributions of general intelligence, reading experiences, number of semesters of Latin study, and achievement in Latin indicates that intelligence occupied a position of maximum importance in the acquisition of vocabulary knowledge on the part of those members of the group who had engaged in Latin study.
3. The matching of pupils on the bases of intelligence, sex, age, semesters in school, and school achievement indicated little, if any, difference in vocabulary knowledge on the part of Latin and non-Latin pupils. While under experimental conditions a knowledge of English vocabulary may possibly be transferred to the pupil when Latin is used as a vehicle, it is probable that in the ordinary teaching situation little, if any, transfer occurs.
4. The study of Latin must be justified by the attainment of its direct objectives. One who has shared, even to a small degree, in the magnificent thinking of the old writers will admit at once the desirability of attainment of the first objective set up by the Classical Investigation: "Ability to read new Latin after the study of the language in school or college has ceased." The *Orationes in L. Catilinam* and the *Horatii carmina* stand out in memory among the great recollections. A study which can produce such moments of understanding needs no greater justification. To follow Wagener: "The study of language, literature, and the artistic side of classical culture must be used to foster the aesthetic and intellectual development of the individual as an individual and to create a pleasure in living that is highly personal."¹

¹ A. Pelzer Wagener, "The Adaptation of Objectives in Ancient Language Teaching to Present Educational Practices," *Classical Journal*, XXXII (May, 1937), 459.

PRINCIPALS' APPRAISAL OF THE HOME ROOM

FRED B. DIXON

David H. Hickman High School, Columbia, Missouri



THE home room in some form is, without question, a part of the senior high school in many cities. For some years authorities in secondary education have held the opinion that the home room is an extremely valuable part of the high school.

For more than a decade Fretwell has stressed the importance of the home room. Eikenberry says: "The home room is the most important unit in the organization of the school."¹ McKown states his faith in the home room as follows: "I believe that the home room offers the most valuable single educational opportunity in the school."² Later he writes: "A school that had nothing but home rooms and home-room activity would be an absurd anomaly; a school that made no provision for home rooms and home-room activity would be just as ridiculous."³ In their rather detailed discussion of the basic activities, Roemer, Allen, and Yarnell say: "After many years of administration and supervision of junior and senior high schools, the authors are thoroughly convinced that the activities program is a tripod, as it were, which stands on these three legs—*home room, clubs, and assemblies*. Experience has shown that, when any one of these three is absent, the program falls."⁴

While some of the authorities in the field of pupil activities are definitely enthusiastic about the home room, little can be found in

¹ D. H. Eikenberry, "The Administration of Extra-curricular Activities." Columbus, Ohio: Department of School Administration, Ohio State University, 1928 (mimeographed syllabus).

² H. C. McKown, "Some Things I Do Believe in Extra-curricular Activities," *School Activities*, IV (October, 1932), 3.

³ Harry C. McKown, *Home Room Guidance*, p. 43. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1934.

⁴ Joseph Roemer, Charles Forrest Allen, and Dorothy Atwood Yarnell, *Basic Student Activities*, p. 10. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1935.

the literature expressing the opinions of senior high school principals. In the winter of 1937 the writer sent a questionnaire to the principals of one hundred senior high schools to find out what they consider the values of the home room. These principals were recommended by authorities in the field of secondary education because they were using fairly comprehensive home-room programs in their schools.

Replies were received from twenty states and Hawaii. Over half of the replies came from Missouri, Oklahoma, and Pennsylvania. The opinions of seventy-three principals concerning the contributions of the home room to the development of the pupil are given in Table 1.

Almost half of the principals who answered the question think that the home room contributes "very much" to the total development of the pupil. The principals give to the total contribution of the home room a median numerical rating of 3.9, just below the highest possible rating. There is a slight tendency on the part of the principals who devote more time to home-room activities to rate the total contributions of the home room a little higher than do the other principals.

As a means of securing information on the activities of the home room that the principals think are most valuable and those that they consider least valuable, each principal was asked to rate eight selected activities common to most home rooms. The percentages of the principals who consider that, when a skilful sponsor is in charge, the selected home-room activities contribute "very much" to the total development of the pupil are as follows: "Private talks with sponsors," 83.6 per cent; "Specific tasks, such as committee work," 64.4 per cent; "Plan and carry out projects," 61.6 per cent; "Fellowship with other students," 48.0 per cent; "Being a home-room officer," 45.2 per cent; "Being on the program," 32.9 per cent; "Talks by the sponsor," 31.5 per cent; "Social or home-room parties," 13.7 per cent.

The principals were also asked to compare the contributions of the home room with the outcomes of the same amount of time spent in class. The table shows that nearly two-thirds (63.8 per cent) of the sixty-nine principals who answered this question think that the

contributions of the home room are either "very much more" or "a good deal more" than the outcomes of the same amount of time

TABLE 1
OPINIONS OF SEVENTY-THREE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
CONCERNING CONTRIBUTIONS MADE BY HOME ROOM

RATING*	NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS ACCORDING TO AMOUNT OF TIME GIVEN WEEKLY TO HOME ROOM					PERCENTAGE OF PRIN- CIPALS
	120 and More Minutes	60-119 Minutes	0-59 Minutes	Time Not In- dicated	Total	
Contribution to total development of pupils:						
Very much (4).....	14	15	4	3	36	49.3
A good deal (3).....	8	8	7	2	25	34.3
Some (2).....	2	3	5	10	13.7
Very little (1).....	1	1	2	2.7
Nothing (0).....
Total.....	24	26	17	6	73	100.0
Median rating.....	4.1	4.1	3.4	3.0	3.9
Contribution compared with same amount of time spent in class:						
Very much more (3).....	3	4	1	8	11.6
A good deal more (2).....	8	15	9	4	36	52.2
Same (1).....	7	4	7	18	26.1
Less (0).....	2	3	1	1	7	10.1
Total.....	20	26	17	6	69	100.0
Median rating.....	2.1	2.4	2.2	2.5	2.3
Extent that values might be achieved in class:						
Much better (4).....	1	1	2	3.1
Better (3).....	1	1	1.6
About as well (2).....	2	1	5	1	9	14.1
Not so well (1).....	16	19	8	2	45	70.3
Not at all (0).....	4	3	7	10.9
Total.....	23	24	14	3	64	100.0
Median rating.....	1.5	1.5	1.9	1.8	1.6

* The figures in parentheses represent the numerical values given to the ratings.

spent in class. The principals give a median numerical rating of 2.3 on this question, or a rating of "a good deal more." The amount of time that pupils spend in the home room does not appear to be a significant factor in these ratings.

Not only do a majority of these principals feel that the time spent in the home room is more valuable than the same amount of time spent in class, but a majority of them also think that the values and activities of the home room cannot be achieved so well in class. The table shows that more than four-fifths (81.2 per cent) of the principals who answered the question think that the values and the activities of the home room either can be achieved "not so well" or "not at all" in class. This point of view is slightly more pronounced by principals whose pupils spend an hour or more in the home room. It should be added here that several principals state that they think the activities of the home room and the activities of the classroom are not comparable. For example, one principal writes: "The contribution is perhaps equivalent, but the aims are not comparable." Another writes: "It is difficult to compare the class and the home room. The home room has its special, indispensable functions, which in many ways do not overlap with the classroom." Still another principal states: "The home room meets under less artificial conditions, and situations are more lifelike." A Pennsylvania principal writes: "Must 'learn' pupils before teaching them."

The principals included in this study are a select group in that they are a group who are believed to have good home-room organizations in their schools. The enthusiasm of an unselected group probably would not be so great as that of the group used here. If anyone, however, is in a position to evaluate subjectively the home room, it should be the principal who has a fairly comprehensive program in his own school. The necessity for the home room, its importance, and its future have, of course, not been determined in this study. The intangible nature of the expected outcomes defy objective measurement at the present time.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER AND AUBREY E. HAAN
Stanford University



THE organization of secondary education has not recently claimed the attention of those who have written books and articles for the professional journals to the extent that it has in former years. The junior college has continued to receive much attention, and the youth problem has also been treated in numerous publications.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

482. BRIGGS, THOMAS H. "Has the Junior High School Made Good?" *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXIV (January, 1938), 1-10.
An attempt to measure the effectiveness of the junior high school organization by securing from 130 junior high school teachers judgments on whether the junior high school has been an improvement over the eight-four organization.
483. MORGAN, DEWITT S. "Junior High-School Issues," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (February, 1938), 33-38.
Defines the three most important functions of the junior high school.
484. WARD, DOUGLAS S. "Eleven Experiments of the Boulder Junior High Schools," *Clearing House*, XII (March, 1938), 409-11.
Describes eleven administrative and curricular adjustments designed to adapt the school to individual and group needs.

JUNIOR COLLEGE

485. CLOUD, A. J. "The Junior College and the Community," *Junior College Journal*, VIII (May, 1938), 453-58.
Illustrations of junior colleges that have based their curriculums on the needs of the communities in which they are located.
486. CREAGER, JOHN O. "The Organization of Junior Colleges," *Junior College Journal*, VIII (May, 1938), 386-92.
Discusses the state's responsibility for the supervision of junior colleges and the place of the junior college in the public-school system.
487. HAYDEN, FLOYD S. "The Junior College—An Upward Extension," *Junior College Journal*, VIII (November, 1937), 81-83.

An argument for considering the junior college as an upward extension, and hence an integral part of the high school, and not as a detachment of the first two years of college.

488. KILZER, L. R. "How Local Public Junior Colleges Are Financed," *School Review*, XLV (November, 1937), 686-94.
A study of the instructional costs and systems of financial support of seventy-eight local public junior colleges in seventeen states.
489. KOOS, LEONARD V. "A Quarter-Century with the Junior College," *Journal of Higher Education*, IX (January, 1938), 1-6.
A review of the history, increasing importance, and current trends and purposes of the junior college.
490. NIX, EDWARD H. "Present Legal Status of the Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, VIII (October, 1937), 10-21.
The legal status of the junior college as defined by recent legislation.

VERTICAL ORGANIZATION

491. HENRY, NELSON B., and LANGE, PAUL W. "Structural Organization," *Review of Educational Research*, VII (October, 1937), 366-71, 422-25.
A review of the literature appearing from July, 1934, to July, 1937, on trends in school organization, including elementary and secondary schools, junior college, and college.

ARTICULATION¹

492. BOYCE, W. T. "California Junior Colleges and the University," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XII (October, 1937), 370-73.
A treatment of the effect of university-entrance requirements on the offering of terminal courses by junior colleges. Includes proposals for improvement.
493. GLADFELTER, MILLARD E. "Status and Trends of College-Entrance Requirements," *School Review*, XLV (December, 1937), 737-49.
A study of changes in college-entrance requirements.

THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

494. BROADY, KNUTE O. "Making a Good, Small High School Better," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (February, 1938), 39-43.
Points out the advantages of small high schools and indicates the need for developing techniques which will permit these schools to offer better vocational training, guidance, and community contacts.
495. FROST, NORMAN. "Medium-Size School Systems Are Better," *American School Board Journal*, XCV (August, 1937), 19-20; (September, 1937), 18.

¹ See also Item 466 in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1938, number of the *School Review*.

A comparison of the financial and the educational efficiency of small, medium, and large school systems.

496. RIDDLE, JOHN INGLE. *The Six-Year Rural High School*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 737. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. vi+102.

A comparative study of staff, buildings, equipment, curriculum offerings, achievement and progress of pupils, graduates entering college, and cost per pupil of large and small six-year rural high schools in Alabama.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

497. PATTERSON, WILLIAM F. "Present Trends of Apprenticeship in the United States," *American School Board Journal*, XCV (September, 1937), 22-24. Condensation in *Secondary Education*, VI (December, 1937), 226-29.

Points to the need for, and organization of, training for skilled workers.

498. RADTKE, ROY. "Industrial-Arts Education in Milwaukee," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XXVII (April, 1938), 139-41.

Describes the organization and the curriculum of the Milwaukee Boys' Trade and Technical School.

499. REED, CARROLL R. "Following Through in Minneapolis," *Occupations*, XVI (January, 1938), 321-25.

A report on a follow-up study of high-school graduates.

500. SOTZIN, HEBER A. "Occupational Training and Employment," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XXVII (June, 1938), 219-24.

Surveys recent federal legislation affecting vocational education and emphasizes importance of industrial trends for youth employment and education. Points to the need for planning vocational-education policy.

YOUTH PROGRAMS¹

501. BELL, HOWARD M. *Youth Tell Their Story*. Conducted for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938. Pp. 274.

A study of the conditions and attitudes of young people in Maryland between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four.

502. HARLEY, D. L. *Surveys of Youth—Finding the Facts*. American Council on Education Studies Series IV. American Youth Commission, Vol. I, No. 1. Washington: American Council on Education, 1937. Pp. viii+106.

A description of 166 surveys, including follow-up, employment, rural, and miscellaneous studies of youth in many parts of the United States.

¹ See also Item 481 in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1938, number of the *School Review*.

503. RAINY, HOMER P. "Our Youth Problem in the United States," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XII (October, 1937), 333-38.
A brief description of the work of the American Youth Commission and the major factors involved in the problem of youth education.
504. RAINY, HOMER P., and OTHERS. *How Fare American Youth?* New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. x+186.
"How fare American youth in jobs, in job-finding, in schooling, in health, in leisure, in the family, in the church, and in all that makes for character?"

ADULT EDUCATION

505. "Federal Aid," *Journal of Adult Education*, IX (October, 1937), 424-29.
A survey of proposed and existing federal legislation for the support of adult education.
506. HEWITT, DOROTHY, and MATHER, KIRTLEY F. *Adult Education—A Dynamic for Democracy*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. viii+194.
A statement of the meaning, philosophy, methods, needs, and organization of adult education.
507. MUELLER, A. D. *Principles and Methods in Adult Education*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937. Pp. xviii+428.
A textbook on methods of teaching adult groups. Treats the psychology of teaching, the lecture method, leadership of discussion groups and panels, public forums, visual and verbal illustration, and techniques for guiding reading.
508. STUDEBAKER, J. W. "Public Forums: An Evaluation," *Journal of Adult Education*, IX (October, 1937), 393-95.
A review of the growth of the public forum, with an evaluation of its effectiveness.
509. WILSON, LOUIS R. (Editor). *The Role of the Library in Adult Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937. Pp. xii+322.
A collection of papers read before the University of Chicago Institute on Adult Education for Librarians in Service. Includes discussion of the philosophy and the objectives of adult education as they relate to libraries, the adult-education programs of various institutions, and methods of adult education.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

THE PROBLEM OF PUBLIC-SCHOOL INTERPRETATION.—In the United States popular faith in public education has been demonstrated during the past several decades by the rapid increase in the number of pupils enrolled at the higher levels of the public schools. Consequently, during the lifetime of the average parent tremendous changes have occurred in most, if not all, school systems. More teachers are needed, more and larger buildings are necessary, more complicated organizations are required, and a curriculum which will provide appropriate educational opportunities to the whole range of individual differences is essential. These and many other changes have made it increasingly important that laymen be constantly informed concerning the aims, the conditions, the needs, and the results of public education. It is not surprising, therefore, to learn that three books have recently been published in this field.

In the Preface to *An Introduction to Public-School Relations*,¹ the author states that his purpose is "to discuss the importance and the characteristics of an efficient public-relations program in the public schools, and desirable ways and means of conducting such a program" (p. vii). Chapters on the philosophy and on the organization and administration of public-school relations make up the first part of the book. Most of the space, however, is devoted to means and agencies employed, including the school newspaper and other pupil publications, school reports, house organs and handbooks, parent-teacher associations, the janitor, the school plant, American education week and other special events, and the publicity campaign. The book is a well-written, scholarly manual on the general principles and methods of public-school relations. Each chapter is followed by questions for discussion and well-selected, briefly annotated references. Four tables and forty-one figures furnish pertinent illustrative materials.

Another book of a similar type is Grinnell's *Interpreting the Public Schools*.² The first three chapters are introductory and deal with the philosophy and the practice of interpretation. The methods and the agencies treated are much the same as those in Reeder's book, but more emphasis is given to published materials. Almost half of the book is devoted to this area of the interpretation

¹ Ward G. Reeder, *An Introduction to Public-School Relations*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1937. Pp. xii+260. \$2.25.

² J. Erle Grinnell, *Interpreting the Public Schools: A Manual of Principles and Practices of Public School Interpretation with Special Emphasis on Published Materials*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. xii+360. \$2.75.

problem. In these chapters the author reveals a rich background of experience. Not only does he discuss general principles, but he also presents many examples of published copy, which give to the book a practicality often lacking in such treatments. The style is exceptionally readable. Each chapter carries a list of selected references, and there are forty illustrations and figures.

Neither of these books presents any material which is strikingly new to the student of public-school interpretation. Rather they sum up effectively the philosophy and the practices being employed. As manuals of this sort, they should be especially helpful to the practical school administrator and to the beginning student in the field.

Moehlman's *Social Interpretation*¹ is a quite different type of contribution. Through it the author definitely maintains his position as the leading thinker in the field. In the opinion of the reviewer, the book is an outstanding contribution to educational thinking and will, no doubt, occupy a position of prestige equal, at least, to that held by the same author's *Public School Relations* published in 1927.

Part I presents the point of view (described by the author as functional) which permeates the remaining chapters. Part II deals with the principles and the policies of interpretation, while Part III discusses the functions of various institutional agents, such as the board of education and the superintendent. The most lengthy section of the book is Part IV, which treats the various institutional and community agencies concerned with interpretation. Throughout the book one is impressed with the sound scholarship and the wealth of experience which is evident. The author is not so much concerned with mediums or practical techniques as with principles, functions, and procedures of the public school as a social institution serving all the people. Each chapter begins with an introductory paragraph outlining the main divisions of the chapter and ends with a summary statement. Recommended readings for each chapter are listed at the back of the book. One is impressed with the appropriateness of the fifteen or more photographs included in the book, though the purpose of the frontispiece—Grant Wood's "American Gothic"—is still somewhat of a mystery to the reviewer.

It is surprising to the reviewer that none of these authors emphasized the role which the curriculum itself may play in an interpretation program. A modern curriculum which is designed to meet the present and future everyday living needs of boys and girls and which uses the community as a laboratory, should make extremely significant contributions to the interpretation problem. Here is a rich field for exploration.

RUSSELL T. GREGG

Syracuse University

¹ Arthur B. Moehlman, *Social Interpretation: Principles and Practices of Community and Public-School Interpretation*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xiv+486. \$3.00.

A BASE LINE FOR ESTIMATING EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS.—American education is befuddled. Conflicting shifts in social, economic, and political thinking have occurred too rapidly to be properly digested by educators. Philosophies which a quarter of a century ago formed the matrix for the foundation of a science of education have been challenged with effect; but, as is often the case when the "oldsters" are on the ebb tide, the youngsters gleefully seize on the new without the orientation that characterizes the work of a true scholar.

The early stages of confused thinking are characterized by the exuberance of the attacks on the existing order. However, in time the youthful reformers soften their intense feelings and the results of consistently clear thinking emerge. It is refreshing, therefore, to note that one of the "oldsters" of today has sensed the values which might accrue to the oncoming generation of teachers from a summarization of over three decades of constructive thinking about education's problems. Henry Clinton Morrison, with the insight of a practical Yankee, has been reporting, speaking, and writing sanely throughout the span of his professional life with respect to the issues in American education. To have rewritten this material and to have published it as of today would have been a mistake, for some of the issues to which he called attention thirty years ago are still unsolved.

The title of this collection of papers¹ points toward the current adjustments between school and society. Even though these essays cover a span of thirty-two years in utterance and publication, they are not arranged chronologically but in a co-ordinated exposition.

The book opens with an address delivered in late November, 1931, under the caption "What Are Public Schools For?" and ends with a paper read before the National Council of Education in February, 1934, on "Sincerity in the Present Situation." Between chapters i and xxiii appears material some of which was written as early as 1906. For example, chapters iii and iv, "The Recruitment of the Teaching Force" and "Government and Administration," are taken from one of Morrison's reports as state superintendent of public schools of New Hampshire. These early documents are included in the present collection because "they help to give us something of a base line for estimating progress during the past thirty years and in part because they are perhaps of some historical interest in their bearing upon the general theme of this volume" (p. 13). Morrison also includes these early documents to orient the youngsters. He states:

By 1905 a critical attitude toward public affairs was spreading. Earlier reports of all sorts, in the several states, for many years had tended to be complacent and laudatory; but after the turn of the century all that changed. . . . Young men were coming forward, and many of us were profoundly disgusted with complacency in the face of iniquity, which was undoubtedly more or less characteristic of the whole genera-

¹ Henry C. Morrison, *School and Commonwealth: Addresses and Essays*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937. Pp. x+238. \$2.50.

tion preceding our own. But this was long ago, and a new generation calls us Victorians [p. 13].

In other words, when Morrison was at the turn of the century, his attack on complacency was not unlike the present attack of the youngsters on that which is labeled "traditional." Thirty to forty years hence some of the present reformers will, no doubt, discover that they too will be called complacent.

School and Commonwealth not only reflects the length of Morrison's perspective as to time but also reveals the breadth of his influence. The geographical spread of the places where his papers were delivered and the variety of organizations which requisitioned his mind are national in scope. In addition, the book includes two previously unpublished papers, one on "The Supervision of College Teaching" and the second on "Personnel Work with School Problem Cases," that complete the sweep of his vigorous analysis of educational areas in which constructive action is needed. Each of the chapters is like the sharpened point of an arrow which flies true to the heart of the target toward which it is directed. In lucid expression and in directness of statement, Morrison has never appeared to better advantage than in *School and Commonwealth*.

One of the major areas of confused thinking in American education of the vintage of 1928-38 is the relation of education to the social order. If all the words which have been written and spoken about education in a changing world were laid end to end, they would extend to Pluto. The first two chapters in *School and Commonwealth* deal with this area pointedly and briefly. The first is an answer to the question "What Are Public Schools For?" The second deals with "Education and the Social Order." The final chapter in the collection, "Sincerity in the Present Situation," deals with the same topic. Other chapters touch on it, for example, chapter vi, "Social Consequences of Bad Administration," and chapter ix, "The Social Studies in the Curriculum." In these chapters Morrison states the main issues clearly and does not leave the reader up in the air as to his own position. He states:

The schools exist for the purpose of training pupils into good and efficient citizenship and for nothing else. . . . There is a good deal of nonsense talked about differentiated curriculums, about allowing children to study that for which they are best fitted. . . .

Reading and the multiplication table are just the same in Boston and Chicago, in Atlanta and Seattle. So are the other essential school arts, like speaking and writing the English language correctly. So are the sciences. So are tastes for good reading and good music and good works of art. So are the principles of American civil institutions. So are self-control and sound morals and the intelligent use of money. And all these things are of the essence of good citizenship.

A good many people are growing dissatisfied over the chaotic condition of the curriculum, and rightly so. . . . The school people as a class are not responsible. Individual citizens and groups of citizens are responsible. For a good many years now, everybody who had had an ax to grind has contrived to get the schools to grind it. . . . Now the schools do not exist for propaganda, not even for good propaganda. They exist for the upbringing of good citizens. All our worthy friends would do much better

to leave the schools alone to achieve their essential purpose, for then their cherished aims and aspirations would probably take care of themselves [pp. 2-3].

For those who wish an anchor to the windward in the stormy buffeting of conflicting thought and opinion today, *School and Commonwealth* is strongly recommended. Whoever is responsible for persuading Professor Morrison to publish under one cover this collection of his addresses and essays has performed a service to teachers and administrative officers in the present situation. It will speed the time when the youngsters will have charted a course out of the present morass.

F. DEAN McCCLUSKY

*Scarborough School
Scarborough-on-Hudson, New York*

ANALYZING THE GROWTH OF AN ORGANIZATION FOR GIRLS.—It is an auspicious event in the life of an institution when some competent person undertakes to make a scientific study of the objectives which it has formulated and the methods which have been devised to express the objectives in action. Such is the purpose of a monograph on the Girl Reserves,¹ the largest of several organizations outside the school that are concerned with the development of wholesome personality traits in adolescent girls.

After defining the problem in the first chapter, the author proceeds to describe the efforts of the Young Women's Christian Association, over a period of nearly forty years, to form clubs suitable for girls of this age. In the third chapter the first years of the Girl Reserve Movement are described, including its actions along several important lines. Perhaps the most important contribution is made in the fourth chapter, which recounts developments in the movement since 1926. Here are most manifest the beneficent effects of a careful study of functions, the effort to conform to modern educational principles, emphasis on individual development through purposeful activity, and growth in democratic participation on the part of the girls and their adult leaders. The final chapter summarizes conclusions, suggests future educational emphases, and points out a need for further study. The methods used include the study of documents, observations of activities, interviews with leaders, and the securing of questionnaires from the leaders of clubs throughout the country.

The study will be especially interesting to advisers of organizations for girls of teen age, but all advanced students of extra-curriculum activities will be interested in the history of the growth of this important organization.

PAUL W. TERRY

University of Alabama

¹ Catherine S. Vance, *The Girl Reserve Movement of the Young Women's Christian Association: An Analysis of the Educational Principles and Procedure Used throughout Its History*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 730. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. x+184. \$1.85.

WHEREIN THE HISTORIANS DISAGREE.—Since the publication a few years ago of John Harcourt's study ("The World War in French, German, English, and American Secondary School Textbooks," *Some Aspects of the Social Sciences in the Schools*, pp. 54-117. First Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Co., 1931), teachers have had before them concrete evidence that writers of history textbooks for use in the secondary school treat their content from the angle of vision of their own country. Additional evidence of this bias in historical writing is furnished in a publication¹ which is confined to the treatment of wars in secondary-school history books of the United States and in the books of the countries participating in these wars as enemies. The criterion applied in the selection of titles for this recent study was the extent of use in the secondary schools at the present time. Applying this criterion, the author selected for analysis nine histories of the United States, four Canadian histories, seven English, two Mexican, three Spanish, and seven German. The wars involved in the analysis are Revolutionary War, War of 1812, Mexican War, Spanish-American War, and World War.

In reporting the results of his study, Walworth devotes a chapter to each of the wars in which the United States has been involved. The first few pages of each of these chapters are devoted to a brief running account of the war to which the chapter is devoted. This account or story attempts to portray the fabric of fact and fancy relative to the war in question that has been woven into the minds of adult American "patriots" through their study of old-time school histories. The sources used in preparing these "outlines of contemporary super-patriotic adult opinion" (p. 88) were older textbooks in American history for use in both elementary and secondary schools.

Another feature of each chapter is the concrete portrayal of the Napoleonic definition of history: "History is legend agreed upon." By means of short, direct quotations from American and enemy textbooks that deal with the same aspects of a particular war, ample evidence is furnished that history is still written with a bias. For example, in the treatment of the victory of Lieutenant Thomas Macdonough on Lake Champlain in September, 1814, one is told in a Canadian history for secondary schools that the English Captain Downie attacked a *superior* American naval force, and in an American history that Macdonough's fleet was "much weaker." Should both of these textbooks perchance fall into the hands of either American or Canadian pupils, history would probably lose some of its present prestige in the schools of these countries, for the pupils in both countries would certainly be keen enough to discover that history, as written by some historians, is anything that history is good for and does not always stick to the truth.

Teachers of American history in the secondary school will welcome this book

¹ Arthur Walworth, *School Histories at War: A Study of the Treatment of Our Wars in the Secondary School History Books of the United States and in Those of Its Former Enemies*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1938. Pp. xx+92. \$1.25.

because it will help them to combat the chauvinistic propaganda sponsored by certain pressure groups. If enough copies of the volume are available, each member of the class in American history could read with profit, when the occasion suggests, Walworth's treatment of each war in which the United States has been involved. If the teacher alone has access to a copy of the book, time would be well spent in reading each chapter to the class when the war treated therein is being studied.

R. M. TRYON

University of Chicago

NEW FOOD FOR THE DETECTIVE FAN.—From Appleton-Century Company comes another anthology of short stories.¹ The compiler, Blanche Colton Williams, is exceptionally well qualified to make such a collection, for she has been a teacher of the short story, she has had under her instruction men and women whose names are now well known in the short-story field, and she served for some time on the committee which selects the stories for the O. Henry Prize Collection. She is the author of several other works: *A Handbook on Story Writing*, *Our Short Story Writers*, *New Narratives*, *A Book of Short Stories*, and *How To Study the Best Short Story*.

One might be inclined to question the compiler's claim that these stories conform to certain recommendations set forth in *An Experience Curriculum in English*, but a study of the stories presented in the collection should convince any unprejudiced person that, both in style and in technique, they reveal Miss Williams' excellent taste and discriminating judgment. The little book is evidently designed for use in secondary schools; yet several of the stories are appropriate for adult consumption.

The reader of current fiction—both the short story and the novel—who finds much of the current Freudian fiction an unpleasant emetic will be refreshed by the stories in this collection. They have all the characteristics of the best mystery and detective stories, with nothing of the shocking, the revolting, or the macabre. Reading these stories after a siege of typical sex fiction is like catching a whiff of the fragrance of roses after a visit to a glue factory.

Not the least valuable feature of the book is the list of suggestive study questions appended to each of the stories. These questions recognize, in some measure, the recommendations of the committee which prepared *An Experience Curriculum in English*, and they are comprehensive without being too lengthy, provocative without being too revealing.

Miss Williams offers the reader a wholesome, interesting collection of stories—stories that are excellent both in style and in technique.

*Kansas State Teachers College
Emporia, Kansas*

VINCENT A. DAVIS

¹ *The Mystery and the Detective: A Collection of Stories*. Edited by Blanche Colton Williams. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xii+364. \$1.00.

A LITTLE OF EVERYTHING IN MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE.—Here is a second-year French book¹ which is written on an interesting theory and which is thoroughly usable. The authors—one a director of foreign language for the Cleveland Board of Education, the other a teacher of French and a Doctor of the University of Paris—bring to their task of preparing a challenging volume an admirable combination of aptitudes. The aim of the authors in writing the book was to present a volume which would be (1) comprehensive, (2) wide in its sampling, (3) cultural, (4) appealing to the interests of the pupils, (5) carefully graded, (6) built on high-frequency vocabulary, and (7) tested for simplicity and interest to pupils.

The book contains a wide variety of selections, all of them well chosen, especially those in the historical group. However, the book is, in no sense, merely a collection of readings. There is a consistent but unobtrusive emphasis on drill and pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary reviews, translation from English to French, and use of the direct method. The questions on the stories, which are to be answered in French, are of great practical value. There is also a small group of French songs.

The book is especially well illustrated with photographs and line drawings. An English-French and a French-English vocabulary and a table of contents are included, but no index. An index, however, is not particularly needed since the grammar and other materials of that type are really incidental.

The format and the composition are above criticism. Although priced slightly on the high side, the volume will probably justify purchase since the sturdy construction and undated nature of the material will insure long usefulness.

FRANCIS F. POWERS

University of Washington

WHAT IS JUNIOR-COLLEGE SCIENCE?—The recent expansion of the junior college has raised problems of curriculum formulation for this level of educational life. For example, what kind of science should be characteristic of courses offered in the junior college? A book² written by three California junior-college instructors of physical science suggests an approach in keeping with several so-called "modern" concepts in education.

As the most logical basis for a science course at the junior-college level, the authors accept the principle of satisfying experiences as opposed to an established subject-matter content, but they tie up the experience concept with twelve instructional units built around subject divisions. Each unit is stated as a major generalization, in the form of a declarative sentence, and is developed logically by illustrative materials which indicate everyday applications of the

¹ E. B. deSauzé and Agnes M. Dureau, *Un peu de tout*. Second French Reader. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1937. Pp. viii+380. \$1.96.

² Charles F. Eckels, Chalmer B. Shaver, and Bailey W. Howard, *Our Physical World: An Interpretation of the Physical Sciences*. Chicago: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1938. Pp. xii+802. \$2.20.

generalization. The twelve units consider the changing physical environment, structure of matter, radiant energy, electricity in our civilization, atomic control, new molecular structures, heat-energy control, communication, laws of motion, earth science, the earth in the universe, and control of scientific achievement. The style of discussion is generally intimate and interesting and is directed toward readers who are apparently not supposed to have had any great amount of work in the field of physical science.

The discussion of each unit is supplemented by (1) an interpretation and a review; (2) a statement of the expected outcomes of the unit, listed specifically under (a) understandings and meanings, (b) attitudes and appreciations, (c) skills and techniques; (3) suggestions for laboratory activities; (4) study questions, which include varied types of test items; (5) suggestions for teachers, including visual aids, references, and demonstrations; and (6) a bibliography.

The book is attractively printed and bound and includes 436 photographs, diagrams, and charts.

A question which arises in connection with the book is: How much appeal will it make to junior-college students who have had extensive work in high-school physics, chemistry, biology, and general science? Would it suit their needs or would much of it be unnecessarily repetitious for them? It seems admirably adapted to the needs of students who have had little high-school science.

A. W. HURD

Hamline University



CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

- An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching*, Vol. II, 1932-1937. Compiled and edited for the Committee on Modern Languages by Algernon Coleman with the assistance of Clara Breslove King. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938. Pp. xviii+562. \$4.50.
- BLUERMEL, C. S. *The Troubled Mind: A Study of Nervous and Mental Illnesses*. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins Co., 1938. Pp. x+520. \$3.50.
- COX, PHILIP W. L., and DUFF, JOHN CARR. *Guidance by the Classroom Teacher*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938. Pp. xxvi+536. \$3.00.
- DIXON, C. MADELEINE. *High, Wide, and Deep: Discovering the Preschool Child*. New York: John Day Co., 1938. Pp. xx+300. \$3.00.
- DONOVAN, FRANCES R. *The Schoolma'am*. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co., 1938. Pp. xii+356. \$2.50.
- GELLERMANN, WILLIAM. *The American Legion as Educator*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 743. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. x+280. \$3.15.
- HOLLIS, ERNEST VICTOR. *Philanthropic Foundations and Higher Education*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1938. Pp. x+366. \$3.50.

- HORRALL, ALBION H., CODONE, LYDIA E., WILLSON, MABEL S., and RHODES, LEAH SMITH. *Let's Go to School: Integrative Experiences in a Public Elementary School*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xii+434. \$3.00.
- LLOYD-JONES, ESTHER McD., and SMITH, MARGARET RUTH. *A Student Personnel Program for Higher Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. x+322. \$2.75.
- LOGASA, HANNAH. *The Study Hall: In Junior and Senior High Schools*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938. Pp. xiv+190. \$2.00.
- MENEFEE, LOUISE ARNOLD, and CHAMBERS, M. M. *American Youth: An Annotated Bibliography*. Prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938. Pp. xii+492. \$3.00.
- MORTON, ROBERT LEE. *Teaching Arithmetic in the Elementary School: Vol. II, Intermediate Grades*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1938. Pp. xii+538. \$2.72.
- MYERS, ALONZO F., KIFER, LOUISE M., MERRY, RUTH C., and FOLEY, FRANCES. *Co-operative Supervision in the Public Schools*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938. Pp. xviii+340. \$2.50.
- Science in General Education: Suggestions for Science Teachers in Secondary Schools and in the Lower Division of Colleges*. Report of the Committee on the Function of Science in General Education, Commission on Secondary School Curriculum. Progressive Education Association Publications. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xiv+592. \$3.00.
- SPIEKE, ALICE WINIFRED. *The First Textbooks in American History and Their Compiler, John McCulloch*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 744. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. vi+136. \$1.60.
- The Stanford Student Leadership Seminar. *Campus Activities*. Edited by Harold C. Hand. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xvi+358. \$3.00.
- STINCHFIELD, SARA M., and YOUNG, EDNA HILL. *Children with Delayed or Defective Speech: Motor-Kinesthetic Factors in Their Training*. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1938. Pp. xvi+174. \$3.00.
- STRANG, RUTH. *An Introduction to Child Study*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938 (revised). Pp. xvi+682. \$3.00.
- The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1938. Pp. 128. \$0.50.
- WILSON, LOUIS R. *The Geography of Reading: A Study of the Distribution and Status of Libraries in the United States*. Chicago: American Library Association and University of Chicago Press, 1938. Pp. xxiv+482. \$4.00.
- WOFFORD, KATE V. *Modern Education in the Small Rural School*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938. Pp. xiv+582. \$2.75.

BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- BEAUCHAMP, WILBUR L., MAYFIELD, JOHN C., and WEST, JOE YOUNG. *Basic Studies in Science, Book I: Science Problems for the Junior High School.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1938. Pp. xii+432. \$1.28.
- CLASS OF 1938, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY. *Were We Guinea Pigs?* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1938. Pp. x+304. \$2.00.
- DAUDET, ALPHONSE. *La Belle-Nivernaise.* Edited with visible vocabulary, notes, and exercises by George Ellas Wisewell. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. iv+76. \$0.40.
- DIX, JOHN P. *Vocabulary Booklet in the Social Studies.* For Junior and Senior High Schools (adapted to any year, especially Grades 8, 9, 11, 12) with Pupil Meanings and Examples, Markings, Activities, Testing. Kansas City, Missouri: John P. Dix (% Northeast Junior High School), 1938 (revised). Pp. 120.
- Easy Spanish Plays.* Edited with exercises and vocabulary by Juan Cano and Hilario Sáenz. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. x+226. \$1.12.
- GUITTEAU, WILLIAM BACKUS, and BOHLMAN, EDNA McCALL. *Our Government Today.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1938. Pp. xii+662+lxvi. \$1.80.
- HATFIELD, W. WILBUR, LEWIS, E. E., BESIG, EMMA M. S., and BORCHERS, GLADYS L. *Senior English Activities, Book I.* Chicago: American Book Co., 1938. Pp. xviii+478. \$1.40.
- The Heath-Chicago French Series: Book VI, *L'Évasion du Duc de Beaufort par Alexandre Dumas.* Retold and edited by Otto F. Bond. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. iv+60. \$0.32.
- The Heath-Chicago German Series: Book XIII, *Von deutscher Sprache und Dichtung* by Peter Hagboldt. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. vi+52. \$0.28.
- The Heath-Chicago Spanish Series: *Paso a paso: An Introduction to Spanish* by Colley F. Sparkman and Carlos Castillo, pp. xii+158, \$1.20; Book VI, *Un vuelo a México: Lecturas, compuestas y arregladas por Carlos Castillo y Colley F. Sparkman*, pp. vi+58, \$0.32. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938.
- HERSEY, FRANK WILSON CHENEY. *Robert Louis Stevenson's "Kidnapped" Followed by "Who Killed the Red Fox?"* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1938. Pp. xii+436. \$1.00.
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